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**Macmillan's Geographical Series**

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GEOGRAPHY  
OF EUROPE

JAMES SIME









Macmillan's Geographical Series.

## **GEOGRAPHY OF EUROPE**



# GEOGRAPHY OF EUROPE

BY

JAMES SIME, M.A.

AUTHOR OF

'HISTORY OF GERMANY,' 'LESSING: HIS LIFE AND WRITINGS,' ETC.

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## PREFACE

IN this volume I have sought to present a general geographical sketch of Europe, and of the various States into which it is divided. In the case of each country the physical features are first described ; then an attempt is made to mark the stages of its history, so far as they are related to geography. Next I have brought together some of the leading facts relating to government, population and national character, religion and education, and industry and trade. Finally, an account is given of the principal towns, these being generally grouped under the historic divisions to which they respectively belong.

For the reason stated in the text, only a short chapter on the British Isles has been written. This may suffice to show how closely Great Britain is associated with the Continent, with which it was at one time connected by land.

It is usually the tendency of young learners to suppose that the political geography of to-day must have been the political geography of all past times. Many serious mistakes spring from this vague notion, which, if it has once

found entrance into the mind, it is difficult wholly to eradicate. Hence the prominence which has been given to the fact that every country has passed through many changes, and that geographical names which have a certain meaning for ourselves have not necessarily had the same meaning for those who have gone before us.

The importance of historic association has also been kept steadily in view in the description of towns. Their place in the industrial and political life of our own time is all the more likely to be understood if something is known of the events with which they have been connected in earlier ages.

It is not, of course, intended that in giving lessons on the geography of Europe the teacher shall confine himself to the facts set forth in this volume. In every chapter there are suggestions which it will be easy for him to expand from the stores of his own knowledge. It may be added that, in teaching from the book, he will find it absolutely essential to make constant use of maps.

It is hardly necessary to say that I have had to consult many different classes of geographical works. It would be useless, and not very easy, to mention all the books to which I am indebted, but I wish especially to express my obligations to the *Kleineres Handbuch der Geographie* (Fourth Edition), by Dr. Hermann Adalbert Daniel; the volume on *Europe*, by F. W. Rudler and G. G. Chisholm, in Stanford's *Compendium of Geography and Travel*, based on Hellwald's *Die Erde und ihre Völker*; and *The Historical Geography of Europe*, by E. A. Freeman. Statistical information I have obtained chiefly from *The Statesman's Year-Book*, by J. S. Keltie.

To the editor of the present series, Dr. Archibald Geikie, I am greatly obliged for the help I have received from him in the treatment of some difficult parts of the subject.

The illustrations are from drawings specially prepared by Mr. Robert T. Pritchett.

JAMES SIME.



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## CHAPTER I

### EUROPE

1. The derivation of the word "Europe" is uncertain. Probably the original form was the Phoenician word "Ereb," meaning the setting of the sun, or the west. By this name the Phoenicians, the great mariners and traders of the ancient world, seem to have called all the regions to the west of their own land.

2. **A Peninsula and a Continent.**—Geographically, Europe is a peninsula of Asia. Not only, however, is it much larger, and far more densely populated, than the Asiatic peninsulas, properly so called, but the races inhabiting it are linked to one another by common interests, and in the course of history have been subjected to influences unlike those which have prevailed in the East. Europe, therefore, is necessarily regarded as a separate continent and one of the great divisions of the world.

3. **Boundaries and surrounding Seas.**—Europe has no very clearly marked eastern boundary. Roughly, it may be said to be divided from Asia in the east by the **Ural Mountains**, the **Ural River**, and the **Caspian Sea**; and in the south-east by the area of depression through which the **Manitch** flows to the **Don**. From this boundary Europe stretches towards the south-west, its entire area being about three and three quarter millions of square miles. Its extreme point in the north is the North Cape; in the south, Cape Tarifa; in the west, Cape La Roca.

The southern shores of Europe are washed by the **Mediterranean**, which divides it from south-western Asia

and from Africa. A peculiar interest attaches to this sea, for on its shores great forms of civilisation have flourished from remote ages, and it is still a part of one of the chief highways between the East and the West. It is about 2300 miles long. Although the largest inland sea in the world, it is not large enough to have strong tides. It has an eastern, a western, and a middle basin; the middle basin, to the south of Sicily, being over 2000 feet deep, while the eastern and western basins are in most parts over 5000 feet deep, and in some much deeper. At its western end the Mediterranean communicates with the Atlantic through the Strait of Gibraltar, the bed of which, in past geological ages, has repeatedly been elevated above the surface, thus forming a land-connection between Europe and Africa. The heat of the sun causes much evaporation, so that, the salt being condensed, the water is rather more saline than the Atlantic. The rainfall and the rivers flowing into the Mediterranean would not suffice to make up for the loss through evaporation; but the average level is maintained by a steady inflow through the strait of Gibraltar.

The Mediterranean cuts more deeply into the European than into the African coast, and three great peninsulas jut into it from the mainland—the Balkan peninsula in the east, the Iberian peninsula in the west, the Italian peninsula in the centre. It has also many islands, including the Archipelago, Crete, Sicily, Malta, Sardinia, Corsica, and the Balearic Isles.

To the east and north of the Mediterranean lies another deep inland sea—the Black Sea. It is connected by the Bosphorus with the Sea of Marmora, which in turn is connected with the Mediterranean by the Dardanelles. For the water that escapes by evaporation, and for that which flows into the Sea of Marmora, the Black Sea is compensated by the Danube, the Dniester, the Dnieper, and indirectly by the Don, which feeds the Sea of Azof—a shallow, brackish gulf connected with the Black Sea by the strait of Kertch. So many rivers have an outlet in the Black Sea that its waters are considerably less salt than those of the Mediterranean.

In the west, Europe is bounded by the **Atlantic**, one of whose gulfs, the Bay of Biscay, washes the northern coast of the Iberian peninsula and the western coast of France. In the north-west are the **British Isles**, between which and Scandinavia lies the shallow **North Sea**, communicating with the Atlantic in the south through the **English Channel**.

By Skager Rack, the Kattegat, the Sound, and the Belts, the North Sea communicates with the **Baltic**, an inland sea corresponding in some respects with the Mediterranean. The Baltic is continued towards the east by the Gulf of Finland, and towards the north by the Gulf of Bothnia. It resembles the Mediterranean not only in forming great gulfs, but in possessing many islands, and in having merely small tides; but it differs from its southern counterpart in the facts that there is little evaporation from its surface, and that it is so well supplied with water from rain and rivers that, if it had not an outlet into the North Sea, it would tend to overflow its shores. In consequence of the scantiness of evaporation and the rich supply of fresh water, the Baltic is much less salt than the Atlantic; and its comparative freshness, combined with its shallowness, leads to its being very readily frozen over.

To the north of Europe—as to the north of Asia and America—extends the **Arctic Ocean**. It forms on the coast various openings, the chief of which is the shallow White Sea. On a line with the Ural Mountains are the islands of Novaia Zemlia, beyond which, to the north, are Spitzbergen and Francis Joseph Land.

Europe is penetrated at so many points by the sea that in proportion to its area it has a longer and more varied coast-line, with a larger number of peninsulas, than any other continent. Its coast-line is almost five times as long as that of Africa.

**4. Mountains, Valleys, and Plains.**—The surface of Europe is also extremely diversified. Towards the south it has, like Asia, a series of great mountain ranges with a general direction from east to west. The most important of these ranges are the **Alps**, which cover an area of about

90,000 square miles. This magnificent range is the great dividing line between northern and southern Europe, and forms one of the chief boundaries of several of the leading European nations. It consists of three groups—the western, the central, and the eastern Alps. The *western* group, beginning at the Gulf of Genoa, passes along a part of the Mediterranean coast, and then sweeps round towards the north, separating Italy from France. It takes in the Maritime, the Cottian, and the Graian Alps. The *central* group, advancing towards the north-east, includes the parallel Pennine and Bernese chains, the Lepontine Alps, and the Rhætian Alps. From the Pass called the Stilfser Joch, the *eastern* Alps spread out in the east, in the north-east, and in the south-east towards the valley of the Danube. The highest parts are in the great central mass, where the range culminates in Mont Blanc (15,732 feet), to the east of which rise the Matterhorn (14,836 feet), Monte Rosa (15,150 feet), the Finsteraarhorn (14,026 feet), and many peaks above 13,000 feet.

The core of the Alps consists of gneiss, granite, and other crystalline rocks. When the chain was uplifted, the forces at work were so powerful that the strata which had been formed during long ages at the bottom of the sea were in many places rent asunder, and the older, harder, underlying rocks were made to protrude through them. The summits, under the wasting influences of the weather, have assumed many forms, and are known by such names as “horn,” “dent,” and “aiguille.” The highest peaks are covered with perpetual snow, and the upper ravines are filled with *glaciers*, from which milk-coloured torrents descend to the lower valleys, forming waterfalls where their beds are interrupted by rocky precipices. The greatest of the Alpine glaciers are the *Aletsch*, descending from the Finsteraarhorn, and the vast stream of ice which passes down from Mont Blanc into the valley of *Chamouni*.

The *valleys* of the Alps are divided into two classes, longitudinal and transverse. *Longitudinal* valleys are those which lie in the direction of the main chains; they are generally deep, wide, and long. The chief valleys of this class are those of the upper parts of the Rhone, the Rhine,

the Inn, the Salza, the Enns, the Mur, the Drave, and the Save. *Transverse* valleys are those which cross the line of the great ridges. Their highest points are often narrow Passes which connect the heads of adjacent valleys.

In the south the Alps slope abruptly to the northern plain of Italy ; in the north they descend gradually to a table-land bordered by the **Jura**, a limestone range, the north-eastern portion of which forms a part of the highlands of Germany. In the south-west the Alps are connected with the **Apennines**, which pass down through the Italian peninsula ; in the south-east with the **Dinaric** or **Dalmatian Alps**, by which they are brought into contact with the mountains of the Balkan Peninsula. They are flanked in the east by the **Carpathians**, from which they are separated by a part of the valley of the Danube ; in the west by the highlands of southern France, from which they are separated by a part of the valley of the Rhone. The **Pyrenees** are an independent range, forming the northern boundary of the Iberian peninsula.

In Scandinavia and the British Isles there are great highland districts, which consist of similar ancient hard rocks, and were at one time connected with one another. Between these districts and the northern offshoots of the Alps lies an extensive **Plain**, which passes eastward along the shores of the North Sea and the Baltic, and occupies the greater part of Russia. Another plain is enclosed by the Carpathians, and a third spreads out between the Alps and the Apennines. In the south-east of Russia arid tracts called the **Steppes** connect Europe with the desolate plain of northern Siberia.

**5. Rivers.**—The comparatively small area of Europe would prevent it, even if its surface were less varied, from having such long rivers as those of Asia, Africa, and America. It has, however, many important rivers, some of which have played a great part in the history of the world. In Asia, Africa, and America it often happens that rivers cut their way through mountain ranges or plateaus ; and this sometimes happens in Europe also, as in the case of the Elbe, which pierces the Erzgebirge. But, as a rule, the

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direction of European rivers is determined by that of mountains and hills, on one side or other of which they flow to other rivers or to the sea.

The longest river in Europe is the **Volga**, which, rising in the Valdai Hills, flows in a slow winding course to the Caspian Sea. The **Danube** is the second longest river in Europe, and the greatest in volume. Originating in two mountain streams on the eastern slopes of the Black Forest, it flows between the Alps and the Carpathians. About the middle of its course it takes a southerly direction, then bends towards the east, and flows into the Black Sea. Several of the greatest rivers of the continent have their source in the Alps, from which flow, to the North Sea, the **Rhine**; to the Mediterranean, the **Rhone**, the **Po**, and the **Adige**; to the Danube, the **Inn** and the **Drave**.

**6. Lakes.**—Europe has also many lakes, one great group being found on the borders of the central Alps, in Italy and Switzerland. Another group lies to the east of the water-parting in Sweden; and there are several great lakes between the Gulf of Finland and the White Sea. Deep fiords, corresponding in some ways to these lakes, pierce the mountains on the western and northern coasts of Norway, Scotland, and Ireland.

**7. Climate.**—As a whole, Europe lies within the temperate zone. It nowhere touches the torrid zone, and the frigid zone takes in only a small part of the northern regions. In the eastern part of Europe the climate is essentially the same as that of the northern plain of Asia; that is, there is great heat in summer and severe cold in winter. As we pass towards the west, the climate is modified by the **Gulf Stream** and other warm currents of the Atlantic. These currents soften the cold of winter, while the general influence of the winds from the sea tends to moderate the heat of summer. In the regions lying to the south of the Alps the contrast between summer and winter is even less marked than in the north-west, for these mountains ward off the cold winds that would otherwise blow towards the Mediterranean in winter from the northern plain. This is strikingly shown by the fact that in January the temperature at Naples is ten degrees

higher than in Constantinople, although these two cities lie in almost the same latitude.

The rainfall, like warmth in winter, although not to the same extent, increases from east to west. This is due not only to the Atlantic, from which there is a vast amount of evaporation, but to mountains and hills, which force the air to rise to levels at which its vapour is condensed into clouds and rain. The vapour thus condensed is borne along chiefly on south-west winds blowing from the Atlantic. In the Mediterranean region a dry wind from the north takes the place of these winds in summer, and during that season there is little rain in southern Europe.

**8. Plants.**—The flora of Europe varies in accordance with the climate. In the extreme north-east we find an Arctic vegetation, consisting chiefly of mosses and lichens, corresponding to the vegetation of northern Siberia. The regions to the south, as far as the Pyrenees, the Alps, and the Russian steppes, were formerly, like the corresponding regions in Asia, covered with great forests, which have been to a large extent cleared away, that the soil might be used for the production of cultivated crops. In the southern districts of this area there is sufficient warmth for the growth of the vine. The principal trees in the forests are the oak, the lime, and the beech; the oak reaching as far north as 62° N. lat., the lime, chiefly in the east, to 63°, and the beech, chiefly in the west, to 60°. In the region to the south of the great central mountain ranges much of the flora is similar to that of northern Africa, a fact which alone would suffice to prove that in former times there was a connection by land between the two continents. The characteristic flora of this region consists of shrubs and trees, such as the laurel and myrtle, the pistachio-nut and the dwarf-palm, whose thick, hard leaves are uninjured by long droughts. The soil and climate are also suitable for such southern plants as the olive, the orange, the citron, the myrtle, and the American aloe.

**9. Animals.**—There are now few large wild animals in Europe, but wolves are still found in various countries, and bears haunt some eastern forests. The reindeer, both

wild and domesticated, is found in the extreme north ; and the chamois occurs in the central ranges of mountains. Domesticated animals are more widely distributed in Europe than in any other division of the globe, the horse being the chief beast of burden in the north, the mule in the south. Food-fishes abound in the various seas ; the cod, the herring, and the salmon being the most valuable in the north ; tunnies, sardines, and anchovies in the Mediterranean. The sturgeon is found in Russian rivers.

**10. Geological Changes.**—The general features of the surface of the globe have the appearance of being so fixed and permanent that we might naturally suppose they had never undergone any essential change. Geology, however, reveals that this would be a wholly mistaken impression. During the immeasurable ages of the past there has been a continual process of evolution, and it has only been by slow degrees that the land has been built up in its present form, and that its relations to the surrounding oceans and seas have been established. This has been the case in Europe, as in all other parts of the world.

The earliest known rocks are those called *Archæan*. In Europe they are found chiefly in Scotland, Scandinavia, Finland, north-western Russia, and the Ural Mountains. In these regions they are evidently the survivals of a great primæval continent. To the south of this land stretched a vast shallow sea, above the surface of which, over a part of the area now covered by the Pyrenees, the Alps, and the Carpathians, and in some other places, rose islands formed of the same primitive rocks. The bed of this sea sometimes subsided, and was sometimes elevated ; and on it were deposited series of strata, the relative age of which is indicated by the fossils embedded in them. In the greater part of what is now Russia the strata were practically undisturbed, so that they lie, one above another, very much in the position in which they were originally placed. But elsewhere they were often violently dislocated by subterranean movements, being in many cases forced upwards, folded, and crumpled, so as to form mountains,

hills, and table-lands. Frequently, too, there were volcanic eruptions, the products of which can still be traced.

The various series of strata are divided into four great groups—Primary or Palæozoic, Secondary or Mesozoic, Tertiary or Cainozoic, and Post-Tertiary or Quaternary. It was during the **Tertiary** period—when plants and animals assumed forms that have generally a more or less close resemblance to those of our own time—that the great continental areas of the world were extended very nearly to their present limits. During Tertiary time, also, was upheaved the vast line of mountains passing westward from Japan to the Atlantic, and including in Europe the Balkans, the Carpathians, the Alps, and the Pyrenees. Some of these ranges seem to have been repeatedly uplifted during previous geological eras, and as often worn down by the slow action of denuding forces. During the Tertiary period they received their latest elevation, but they had not then precisely the same forms as now. Their present forms have been gradually sculptured by the air and by rain, rivers, springs, and frost.

From the remains of the various forms of life we know that during the earlier geological ages there was a warm climate all over the globe. During a part even of the Tertiary period plants resembling those which now flourish only in tropical regions grew in lands within the Arctic circle. As the Tertiary period advanced, the climate of the northern part of the northern hemisphere became more and more cold, until, during a part of the Post-Tertiary period, a great ice-sheet covered a vast region, extending from the North Pole to central Europe. At the same time the valleys of the Alps were filled with enormous glaciers. The period in which this state of things existed is known as the **Ice Age** or **Glacial Period**. There were intervals during which the climate became milder, and the ice retreated towards the north ; but during the greater part of the period the appearance of northern Europe must have been like that of Greenland at the present day. The ice, which in some places was thousands of feet thick, was continually moving ; and in its movements it seems to have hollowed out the basins of lakes in the Alps and

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elsewhere, and of fiords in Norway, Scotland, and Ireland. The course of its principal currents can be traced by the polished and striated surface of the rocks over which it passed, and by the clay and boulders brought by it from higher to lower grounds during its progress towards the sea.

The Ice Age did not come to an end suddenly. The climate changed slowly, and in proportion as it became warmer, the glaciers vanished from the lowlands, and survived only in the extreme north, and among the higher valleys of the Alps, the Pyrenees, and the Scandinavian highlands.

**11. Population.**—The present population of Europe is estimated at about 330,000,000. Of this population the vast majority—upwards of 300,000,000—speak one or other of the languages known as **Aryan** or **Indo-European**. All who speak Aryan languages are not, however, necessarily of Aryan descent, for races have often changed their native speech for that of their conquerors, or for that of a people among whom they have happened to settle. The ancient Gauls, for instance, gave up the use of their own Keltic language, and adopted Latin; and at a later time the Normans learned to speak French instead of the Teutonic language of their forefathers.

At what time man first appeared in Europe we have no means of determining. But we know that he was settled there during the Ice Age, for rude implements of stone and bone have been found in many districts in association with the bones of various Arctic animals. Ages afterwards, when the Aryans began to take possession of various lands, perhaps about 3000 years B.C., two distinct types of men seem to have been settled in Europe. Both were of short stature, with black hair and black eyes; but the members of one group were long-skulled (dolichocephalic), those of the other were round-skulled (brachycephalic). The long-skulled race were settled along the shores of the Mediterranean and along the Atlantic seaboard; the round-skulled race, which must have come at various times from Asia across the area of depression between the Ural Mountains and the Caspian Sea, were settled in central Europe, but were

continually pressing upon groups of the long-skulled race, and mingling with them. It was the destiny of both to become subject to Aryan conquerors.

The Aryans were a tall, vigorous, long-skulled race, with fair hair and blue eyes. That at one time they dwelt together as a single people we know from the fact that certain words and grammatical forms are found in all Aryan languages, which must, therefore, be derived from a common stock. Where the Aryans came from, we do not definitely know. According to some authorities, their primitive home was in Asia; according to others, in Europe. However this may be, it is certain that group after group broke away from the original settlement, and conquered for themselves new homes elsewhere. At the earliest period to which history goes back, the Teutons were settled in central and north-western Europe; the Kelts in Gaul, Britain, and a part of Spain; the Lithuanians in lands to the south of the Baltic; the Slavs in eastern Europe. Other Aryans had conquered Italy and Greece, and a remote group became the ancestors of the Aryans in Persia and India.

The pre-Aryan races were not exterminated by their Aryan masters, but learned their languages and customs. In course of time the conquerors and the conquered united, so that a mixed population arose in almost all parts of Europe. In central and southern Europe the existing population are descended chiefly from the race with round skulls, black eyes, and black hair; but the primitive Aryan type is still to some extent represented even in these regions, while it is represented largely in Scandinavia, north Germany, and parts of the British Isles, northern France, and Russia.

The languages of the pre-Aryan races survive only among the Basques, in the western Pyrenees; and among the Finns and Lapps, in northern Europe. Non-Aryan languages are spoken also by the Magyars and the Turks, both of whom belong to the Turanian stock, and are comparatively recent settlers in their present territories.

**12. Prehistoric Times.**—The history of Europe does not reach nearly so far back as that of Egypt and Babylonia.

But during long prehistoric ages man had slowly ascended from lower to higher forms of civilisation. These ages are divided into three periods—the **Stone Age**, during which the use of metals was unknown, the **Bronze Age**, and the **Iron Age**. The Stone Age is subdivided into the Palæolithic and the Neolithic periods. During the *Palæolithic* period, which was at least as early as the latter part of the Ice Age, weapons and implements were made of bone and roughly chipped stones. At that time, in central and southern Europe, man was the contemporary of the mammoth, the rhinoceros, the cave bear, the reindeer, and the Arctic fox. He lived in caves, and obtained his food by hunting and fishing. He had not yet found out how to till the ground ; he was apparently unable to make pottery ; and he does not seem to have either buried or burned the dead. Strangely enough, however, he had a strong artistic impulse, as we know from carvings and from skilful representations of animals on pieces of bone and horn which have come down to us from the Palæolithic age. During the *Neolithic* period men were in many respects at a stage of progress far ahead of their predecessors. The distinguishing characteristic of Neolithic weapons and implements is that they are not merely roughly chipped but carefully polished. The men of this time knew how to produce cereal crops ; they had various kinds of domestic animals ; they could spin, weave, and sew, and make useful vessels of clay ; they built wooden huts, sometimes erecting them on platforms resting on piles driven into the bed of a lake ; and in many places they buried their dead in great stone chambers covered with mounds of earth. During the Bronze Age weapons and implements were made of bronze ; during the Iron Age, of iron. Each of these periods marked a striking advance in the arts both of war and of peace. Both periods began and ended considerably earlier in the southern than in the northern districts of Europe.

**13. Historical Changes.**—Western history, in the strict sense of the term, begins with the history of **Greece**, and it was in that country that European civilisation first rose to a great height of splendour. In the various communities

of ancient Greece forms of social and intellectual life were developed which in some respects have never been equalled in later ages. When the great days of Greece were over, the first place in the western world was held by Rome, whose dominion ultimately took in, besides vast territories in Africa and Asia, the whole of southern and western Europe, including the larger part of Britain. The language of the Romans spread over their gigantic empire, and from it are descended the Romance languages,—Italian, Spanish, and French. Roman law also to a large extent survives in the legal systems of most of the continental nations. The influence of ancient Greece on modern life is less direct than that of ancient Rome, but in some ways it is even more profound.

The Roman Empire in the west was broken up in the fifth century by Teutonic tribes, who formed new kingdoms among its ruins. The *eastern* Roman Empire, however, of which Byzantium or Constantinople was the capital, went on, and it continued to exist until the fifteenth century, when it was destroyed by the Turks. The *western* Roman Empire was restored by Charles the Great, King of the Franks and Lombards. He was crowned at Rome in the year 800, but the real centre of his Empire was in the Rhineland, whence he ruled the Germans and the people of Gaul and northern Italy. His empire came to an end before the close of the ninth century, when France and Germany emerged as independent kingdoms. In 962 the Roman Empire—called afterwards the *Holy Roman Empire*—was again restored, this time by the German King, Otto I. Nominally, this empire went on until 1806, but in reality it had little power after the middle of the thirteenth century. During the middle ages the greater part of western Europe was divided into a vast number of feudal territories, the heads of which often paid but slight heed to the sovereigns to whom they were legally subject. Side by side with these territories, in some countries, were cities which also became practically independent. It was only gradually that the increasing power of various central Governments led to the formation of thoroughly organised states.

**14. European States.**—The growth of independent states in Europe has been favoured by the peculiar structure of the continent, in which there is a greater number of tracts of land marked off from other regions by natural boundaries than in any other part of the world.

The existing states of Europe differ widely in extent and in power. Six of them—**England, Germany, Austria, Italy, France, and Russia**—are known as the Great Powers, and exercise a predominant influence over the affairs of the western world. The prevailing form of government is monarchical, but the authority of the crown is very much greater in some countries than in others. Two countries—**France** and **Switzerland**—are republics.

**15. Trade.**—The geographical conditions of Europe are eminently favourable to trade. In the central and western parts of the continent no district is very far from the sea, and hundreds of rivers are navigable over a considerable part of their course, while many of them flow at some points at so short a distance from one another that they are readily connected by canals. Moreover, the coast is so varied, and has so many good harbours, that every facility is afforded for commerce by means of ships.

The earliest of the great traders in Europe were the Phœnicians, who established colonies on many parts of the shores of the Mediterranean, and even visited Britain, where they exchanged their commodities for tin. The Greeks, the Carthaginians, and the Etruscans also carried on an extensive commerce; and Roman merchants traded beyond as well as within the limits of the Roman Empire. During the middle ages the chief centres of European trade were the republics of northern Italy, and the cities of northern Germany and the Low Countries.

A new direction was given to commerce by the discovery of America in 1492, and by that of the Cape route to India in 1498. The maritime trade of Europe was thus to a large extent diverted from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic, and thence to all parts of the globe. Many nations also founded colonies in the newly discovered

regions beyond the sea. The example was set by Portugal and Spain, and was followed by Holland, which became one of the greatest of the trading and colonising powers. France, too, played an important part in the movement, and in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries England laid the foundations of what has since become the vastest colonial empire in the world.

Although European trade during the middle ages, and even in earlier times, was considerable, manufactures were in most countries unimportant in comparison with agriculture. In the eighteenth century a momentous change was introduced by the invention of improved machinery for spinning, weaving, and other manufacturing methods; and afterwards commerce was immensely developed by the making of steamships and railways, and by the invention of the electric telegraph. New industries came into existence, and those which already flourished received a fresh and most powerful impetus. One result has been that many towns which were formerly villages have become great manufacturing and trading centres, and that these centres have attracted from rural districts vast numbers of persons who would otherwise have continued to be employed in the pursuits of the country. Agriculture itself has been modified by the application of science to its various processes, so that work can be done by fewer labourers than were needed in former times. This has of course strengthened the general tendency to an increase of the urban at the cost of the agricultural population.

**16. Religion.**—If we except the **Mohammedans** in Turkey and south-eastern Russia, and a certain number of **Jews**, the entire population of Europe may be described in a general sense as **Christian**. During the time of the Roman Empire Christianity became the religion of the civilised world, and afterwards it spread among the Pagan tribes of central, northern, and eastern Europe. Rome was gradually recognised as the head of the **western Church**, and thus acquired, as a spiritual power, a wider and deeper influence than it had ever exercised in the days of its temporal supremacy. A like position was taken by New Rome or Constantinople in the **eastern or Greek Church**,

which differs from the Roman Church in certain points of doctrine and discipline, and in its refusal to recognise the authority of the Papacy. At the time of the **Reformation**, in the sixteenth century, the nations which spoke the Romance languages clung to their ancient religious institutions, but in the Teutonic countries the majority of the people separated themselves from the Roman communion, and gave to the Church such forms as seemed to them suitable for their needs. There are now about 150,000,000 Roman Catholics in Europe, and about 80,000,000 Protestants. The eastern Church has about 90,000,000 adherents.

## CHAPTER II

### GREECE

1. The ancient Greeks called themselves **Hellenes**, and their country was known as **Hellas**. The name "Greece" has come to us from the Romans, who seem to have applied to the Hellenes the name of a small tribe of Epirus, who were probably not of Hellenic blood.

2. **The Coast.**—Greece is the southern part of the Balkan peninsula, and is enclosed in the east by the **Ægean Sea**, in the west by the **Ionian Sea**, and in the south by the **Mediterranean**. The coast is generally rocky and wild, and the sea penetrates it at various points, forming an extremely irregular coast-line, with many gulfs and bays. Near the centre are the Gulfs of Corinth and **Ægina**, cutting off as a peninsula the **Peloponnesus** or **Morea**, which is connected with the northern mainland only by the narrow Isthmus of Corinth. On the opposite sides of the northern mainland are the Gulf of Arta and the Gulf of Volo. A corresponding position with regard to the Peloponnesus is held by the Gulfs of Arcadia and Nauplia; and on the southern shore are the Gulfs of Coron and Laconia, forming the three subordinate peninsulas ending in Cape Gallo, Cape Matapan, and Cape Malea. On the west and south of Greece are the **Ionian Islands**, and on the east the **Ægean Sea** is dotted with the islands of the **Archipelago**.

3. **Mountains and Rivers.**—The surface of Greece is very mountainous, the lower grounds consisting chiefly of narrow valleys, depressions surrounded by heights, and strips of plain along some parts of the coast. The moun-

tains are composed mainly of limestone, and many of them are remarkable for the ruggedness of their forms. The central range is the **Pindus**, which enters the country from the north. At the northern boundary of Greece this range throws off two ridges—the Ceraunian mountains to the west, separating Epirus from Illyria or Albania, and the Cambunian mountains to the east, separating Thessaly from Macedonia. The Cambunian mountains culminate in Mount **Olympus** (9750 ft.), the highest point in Greece, and the second highest in the Balkan peninsula. South-east of Mount Olympus, on the coast of the *Ægean* Sea, are Mounts **Ossa** and **Pelion**, connected with one another by a chain of low hills. West of the Pindus is an extensive table-land, from which various irregular chains proceed towards the Ionian Sea and the Gulf of Corinth. The Pindus itself, which culminates in Mount **Kiona** (8240 ft.), advances in a south-easterly direction. About 39° N. lat. the Othrys range breaks away from it, and on the western shore of the Gulf of Volo meets the western offshoots of Mount Pelion. From the point where the Othrys begins, the Pindus is continued towards the south-east by the *Œta* range, and by a range which includes Mount **Parnassus** and Mount **Helicon**. These two ranges enclose a valley, at the south-eastern end of which they meet. With the high grounds of Attica they are connected by the Cithæron and Parnes ranges, and with the rocky ridge of the Isthmus of Corinth by the Geranian mountains. The Peloponnesus or Morea is not less mountainous than the northern part of Greece. In the centre is the high table-land of *Arcadia*, the mountains on the northern and western borders of which descend to the sea by a series of terraces. From its eastern and southern side several independent chains radiate to the coast. Of these the most important is the **Taygetus** range, which ends at Cape Matapan. It culminates in Mount **Elias** (7901 feet).

Of the lakes of Greece the chief is Lake **Copais**, in Bœotia, which has several outlets to the Eubœan Sea through subterranean channels. The principal river is the **Peneus** or **Salambria**, which, flowing from the eastern slope

of the Pindus, waters the plain of Thessaly, and enters the Aegean through the famous Vale of Tempe. This is the only navigable stream in Greece. West of the Pindus are the **Arachthus** or **Arta** and the **Achelous** or **Aspropotamo**, the former flowing into the gulf of the same name, the latter into the Ionian Sea, near the entrance of the Gulf of Corinth. The **Cephissus** drains the valley between Mount Parnassus and the **Oeta**, and falls into Lake Copais. Of the rivers of the Morea, the **Alpheus**, flowing into the Bay of Arcadia, is the longest. South of it are the **Pamisus** and the **Eurotas**, separated from one another by the Taygetus range.

**4. Climate.**—A country in which there is so much high ground has necessarily a very varied climate. In the loftiest parts much snow falls in winter, and even in summer the air never becomes warm. At the bottom of the valleys and in the plains, on the other hand, winter is marked only by a moderate degree of cold and by the fall of rain, and in summer the heat is so great that most of the rivers are dried up. During the summer months Greece has a cloudless, deep blue sky, and the mountains and surrounding seas are seen through an atmosphere of exquisite purity and transparency.

**5. Ancient Greece.**—The Hellenes or Greeks seem to have entered Greece from the north, and to have settled first in Thessaly, whence they gradually spread over the whole country. They were preceded by the Pelasgians, of whom Herodotus says that they spoke a foreign language, altogether different from Greek. It has been supposed that the Pelasgians were closely akin to the Hellenes ; but it is more probable that they belonged to the small, long-skulled race, with black eyes and black hair, who appear to have been the primitive inhabitants of southern Europe generally. They were conquered by the Hellenes, and learned their language ; and no doubt most of the slaves of ancient Greece—by far the most numerous class—were of Pelasgic origin. The Hellenes themselves were Aryans ; resembling the Pelasgians in being long-skulled, but tall and vigorous, with fair hair and blue eyes. This is the physical type immortalised in the masterpieces of Greek sculpture.

Ancient Greece did not at any time become a united state. A certain feeling of unity was kept up by the facts that the people spoke dialects of the same language, had the same religious ideas, and, in opposition to other races, had like interests. But the country was divided among a number of independent cities, each having its own institutions, intensely jealous of its liberties, and missing no opportunity of freeing itself from any yoke to which, in the fortune of war, it might be subjected. At a time when the rest of Europe was occupied by barbarous tribes, several of the Greek cities became great centres of civilisation. Athens, the most important of them, produced poets, orators, historians, and philosophers, whose works still rank among the foremost achievements of the human mind, and in architecture and sculpture her artists created masterpieces which must always excite the wonder and admiration of mankind.

**6. Geographical Influences.**—The greatness of Greece was to a considerable extent due to geographical causes. The varied surface of the country enabled small, independent states to grow up in comparative security, and the broken coast-line made it easy for most of them to have access to the sea. Those of the Greeks who lived on the coast or in islands naturally became clever sailors, fond of trade and enterprise. Thus they had all the advantages which come from extensive commerce, and their minds were kept alert by a wholesome rivalry.

It was not only with one another that the Greeks were brought into contact by their proximity to the sea. Long before any branch of the Aryan race reached southern Europe there had sprung up on the south-eastern and eastern shores of the Mediterranean, and in countries not very far from the Mediterranean, comparatively high forms of civilisation. Egypt was probably a civilised country while the Aryans were still in their primitive home ; and there was also in Babylonia a great and ancient civilisation, which was carried northward by the Assyrians, and westward, at a still earlier period, by the Semitic peoples who settled in Canaan and Phœnicia. Through Phœnician traders, and in other ways, the Greeks were

brought under the influence of these civilisations, and so they were stimulated to various kinds of effort, which they would never have thought of had they lived in an inland country far removed from what were then the most advanced nations.

The influence of climate must also be taken into account, for it helped to make life pleasant, facilitated social intercourse, and rendered possible those athletic games in the open air for which the ancient Greeks were famous, and which did much to maintain among them a high standard of physical development. Physically, they seem to have been the most beautiful race that ever existed ; and this had naturally a great effect upon their art, when Greek artists became skilful enough to reproduce in sculpture the noblest characteristics of the human figure.

**7. Greek Colonies.**—After the settlement of the Greeks in the mainland they soon began to send forth parties of colonists. In work of this kind they had been preceded by the Phoenicians, who had great colonies on the coast of Africa and Spain, and in some of the Mediterranean islands. In rivalry with the Phoenicians, the Greeks spread their civilisation far and wide,—in the islands of the Archipelago, on the western coast of Asia Minor, on the shores of the Black Sea, in Sicily and southern Italy, and on the southern coast of Gaul and the south-eastern coast of Spain. One of their most flourishing colonies founded MARSELLIES, called by the Greeks *Massalia* ; and the spirit by which such colonies were animated is well shown by the fact that in the fourth century B.C. the Greek merchants of Massalia fitted out an expedition for the exploration, in the interests of trade, of the northern parts of Europe. This expedition was accompanied by Pytheas, a mathematician of Massalia, some portions of whose diary have been preserved. He sailed along the coast of Spain and Gaul, visited some parts of southern Britain, penetrated the Baltic as far as the Vistula, coasted Norway until he was within the Arctic circle, and then crossed to the Shetland Isles and the north of Scotland. That this expedition led to an extension of Greek commerce seems to be shown by the fact that the first coins believed to

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have been struck in Britain were imitations of Greek coins made in the time of the adventurous traveller.

**8. Later History.**—In the latter part of the fourth century B.C. the Greek states were absorbed by the empire of Alexander the Great. The Greeks did not, however, cease to exercise great power ; in the kingdoms into which Alexander's empire was split up their influence was predominant, and their language became the language of educated men and of traders in the greater part of the civilised world.

Greece became subject to the dominion of Rome, and the intellectual life of the Romans was profoundly influenced by Greek ideas. After the break-up of the western Roman Empire in its original form, the eastern Roman Empire, the capital of which was Byzantium or Constantinople, went on for many centuries ; and Greece continued, although often only nominally, to form a part of it. Many far-reaching changes, however, took place. From the eighth century tribes speaking Slavonic languages invaded Greece from time to time, and settled in it permanently. Afterwards groups of Albanians took possession of various islands, and of territory on the mainland. In the thirteenth century the best lands were seized by Frankish knights who had gone to the East as crusaders, and they introduced into the country the customs and ideas of feudalism. The Venetian Republic, too, became a great power in Greece. In the fifteenth century the country, with the rest of the Byzantine Empire, was conquered by the Turks.

The Greeks suffered much from Turkish misgovernment, but never quite lost the sense of their nationality. In 1821-29 they carried on a great struggle known as the war of liberation, and in 1830 Greece was recognised as an independent kingdom under the protection of Great Britain, France, and Russia.

**9. Greek Territory.**—The territory included in the new kingdom was less extensive than the Greek people wished it to be. A considerable addition to it was made in 1864, when the Ionian islands were transferred to Greece. In 1881, by a treaty which Turkey was forced by the Great

Powers to execute, Thessaly and a strip of Epirus were also joined to the Hellenic kingdom. The country now reaches northward to the Cambunian mountains and to a part of the Ceraunian range, and in the north-west the boundary follows the course of the river Arta. Besides the territory on the mainland and the Ionian islands, the kingdom takes in Eubœa and other islands close to the mainland, the northern Sporades, and the Cyclades.

**10. Area and Population.**—Greece has an area of 25,014 square miles, and the population is supposed to be over 2,200,000. That is, there are in Greece about 88 persons for every square mile. This, however, by no means represents the full strength of the Greek people. Greeks, or at all events persons speaking the Greek language, are the predominant population of the entire Levant, and are found in many different parts of the Turkish Empire.

The Greeks of to-day are not the same people as those of ancient times. This is shown by the fact that the pure Hellenic type is rarely found in any part of the country. Modern Greeks are a mixed race, descended in part from the pre-Aryan population, with a dash of Hellenic blood, and in part from Slavonic and Albanian settlers. The Greek language, however, has never died out. It has undergone important phonetic changes, and many foreign words have found their way into its vocabulary; but it is not essentially different from the speech of the original Hellenes.

**11. Government.**—The form of government is a limited monarchy. The power of legislation belongs to a chamber of deputies, called the *Boulé*, elected by the people, and to this assembly ministers appointed by the Crown are responsible. In 1888 the army consisted of 26,500 men, and there is also a small navy.

**12. Religion and Education.**—The vast majority of the people belong to the Eastern or Greek Church, their adherence to which always tended to make the Turkish dominion intolerable. The clergy of Greece were formerly subject to the patriarch of Constantinople, but in 1834 the Orthodox Church in the kingdom was declared to be

independent, and now it is ruled by a Holy Synod composed of the metropolitan of Athens and four archbishops and bishops, who hold office for a year, during which they reside in the capital.

There are three grades of public schools, and the law requires that the schools of the lowest grade shall be attended by all children between the ages of five and twelve. In country districts, however, this law is often evaded. At Athens there is a great university, with more than 2000 students and about 100 professors. There is also a university at Corfu.

**13. Industry and Trade.**—There are few manufactures in Greece, the chief industry being agriculture, in which about a half of the population are engaged. Some proprietors have large estates, but the land is for the most part possessed by peasants, few of whom are rich or intelligent enough to have introduced modern methods of agriculture. Besides cereals, the currant (so called from Corinth, the chief place of export) and the olive are largely cultivated. There are also a good many vineyards, and much land is set apart for the growth of tobacco and cotton.

The Greeks are eager traders, and, since the country became independent, have increased the facilities for commerce by making many good roads and opening some lines of railway. Among their principal imports are corn, textile fabrics, timber, and cattle. They export, among other things, currants, olive oil, figs, tobacco, wine, lead, and sponges. On the coast and in some of the islands there is a good deal of shipbuilding; and much of the trade of south-eastern Europe is carried on by means of Greek vessels, manned by Greek sailors.

**14. Divisions, and Aspect of Greece.**—For administrative purposes Greece is divided into eighteen nomarchies, but it is necessary to keep in mind only the names of the various districts of ancient Hellas.

The aspect of the country is very different from that which it presented in ancient times. The forests which then clothed the sides of the mountains have for the most part been cut down; and, owing to long-continued mis-

government, tracts of land which used to be richly cultivated have become marshy and barren. Cities once famous, and adorned with noble works of art, are now in many cases represented by petty villages.

**15. Thessaly.**—The northern district, called *Thessaly*, consists chiefly of a plain surrounded on all sides by mountains. It is admirably suited both for agriculture and for the rearing of cattle. In the historic period of ancient Greece it was not of great importance, but in an earlier age it must have held a high position, for many of the old heroic legends relate to it. Here were the kingdoms of Achilles, Philoctetes, and other Homeric chiefs; and from Iolchos, on the Gulf of Volo, the Argonauts were supposed to have set out on their search for the Golden Fleece. In Thessaly, too, was the kingdom of Hellas, which afterwards gave its name to the entire country. The capital of Thessaly is *LARISSA* (pop. 13,169), an ancient town on the Salambria, with some manufactures and a considerable trade. On one of the southern tributaries of the Salambria is *PHARSALA*, near which, in 48 B.C., was fought between Julius Cæsar and Pompey the battle which secured for Cæsar supremacy in the Roman world. In southern Thessaly, between the Othrys and *Œta* ranges, lies *LAMIA*, near the site of the ancient city of the same name. From this town, which is beautifully situated, with many ruins of Turkish mosques and palaces, travellers ascend Mount Othrys, from which there is a magnificent view extending from Mount Olympus to Mount Parnassus.

**16. Athamania.**—West of Thessaly is *Epirus*, a part of which was added to Greece in 1881. This district has received the ancient name of *Athamania*. It is bounded in the west by the river Arta, and through the centre of the district flows the upper portion of the Aspropotamo. Tobacco is grown in the valley of the Arta, which has a mild and pleasant climate. On the lower part of the Arta is the town of *ARTA*—formerly called *Ambracia*—which was the residence of King Pyrrhus.

**17. Acarnania and Ætolia.**—The lower course of the Aspropotamo divides *Acarnania* from *Ætolia*. The northern part of *Ætolia* consists of highlands, where robber clans have

often found shelter. But in the south the Aspropotamo flows through fertile lowlands, in which, both in Ætolia and Acarnania, there are several lakes. Another fruitful valley is formed in the east of Ætolia by the Evenus. In the west of Acarnania, at the mouth of the Gulf of Arta, is Cape **Actium**, off which, in 31 B.C., was fought a great Roman naval battle. On the Aspropotamo, on a height, are the ruins of STRATON, formerly the chief town of the Acarnanians. At MISSOLONGHI (pop. 6324), on the Gulf of Patras, is a monument to Byron, who died there during the war of liberation in 1824. Not far from Missolonghi are the ruins of ancient CALYDON.

**18. Doris.**—Beyond the eastern corner of Ætolia is *Doris*, a highland district once occupied by the Dorians, who conquered the Peloponnesus and became one of the most important groups of the Hellenic people. The river Cephissus, which flows through Phocis to Lake Copais, rises in Doris.

**19. Phocis.**—*Phocis*, to the east of Doris, lies between a part of the Æta range in the north and the Gulfs of Crissa and Anticyra in the south. Near the middle of it rises Mount Parnassus, which the ancient Greeks regarded as the central point of their country. It is 8036 feet high, and has three lofty peaks, which are generally covered with snow. From two of these peaks, which are especially prominent, it was called the two-peaked Parnassus. The highest of the peaks was associated with the worship of Dionysos (Bacchus); the rest of the mountain was sacred to Apollo and the Muses. At the southern foot of the mountain is the village CASTRI, on a part of the site of ancient *Delphi*, famous for its oracle and a great temple of Apollo. The Castalian spring, the holy well of Delphi, still flows. To the north of Parnassus a fertile valley is drained by the Cephissus. ELATEA, a village in the north, represents the ancient capital of the Phocians.

**20. Western Locris.**—*Western Locris*, between Ætolia and Phocis, is a wild country, the greater part of which is covered by offshoots from Parnassus and from the hills of Ætolia. SALONA, an inland town, is on the site of *Amphissa*, the ancient capital of the Locrians. It is

overlooked by a steep rock which formerly served as the acropolis, and on the top of which are the ruins of the mediæval castle of a Frankish baron. **EPIACTO** (at one time called LEPANTO), on the coast, stands for *Naupactus*, in ancient times the chief port on the northern side of the Gulf of Corinth. Opposite this town was fought, in 1571, the naval battle in which Don John of Austria defeated the Turks.

**21. Eastern Locris.**—In *eastern Locris*, between the Ceta range and the Eubœan Sea, is the Pass of **Thermopylæ** (so called from its hot sulphurous springs), made famous by the heroism of Leonidas and his comrades.

**22. Boeotia.**—The greater part of *Boeotia* is a plain, but in the south-west is Mount Helicon (about 5000 feet high), which, like Parnassus, was sacred to Apollo and the Muses. It has two famous springs—the fountains of Hippocrene and Aganippe; and in a hollow beneath one of its summits was the grove of the Muses. At its foot lay the village of **ASCRA**, the home of Hesiod. In ancient times Boeotia was made fruitful by an elaborate system of drains and canals; but now it consists chiefly of marshy districts and of districts which are insufficiently supplied with water, so that its villages are for the most part poor and unhealthy. Its most prosperous place is **THIVA**, the modern representative of ancient *Thebes*, the subject of one of the most famous of the legends of the heroic age. Its citadel was called **CADMEA**, and the Greeks believed that the city was founded by a Phœnician colony under Cadmus, who was supposed to have introduced into Greece an alphabet of sixteen letters. At **PLATÆA**, **CHÆRONEA**, **TANAGRA**, and other places in Boeotia are famous battle-fields. In recent times the name of Tanagra has been made familiar by beautiful little terra-cotta figures which have been found there in tombs.

**23. Attica.**—*Attica* is the south-eastern peninsula of central Greece. It forms a rough triangle, the base of which is separated from Boeotia by the Cithæron and Parnes ranges. It is a small, mountainous district, and nowhere possesses a particularly fertile soil; yet, thanks in part to its geographical position, it became one of the

greatest centres of civilisation the world has ever known. Its hills are exceptionally beautiful both in form and colour, and the air is mild and pure.

From the western coast a valley recedes towards the middle of the district. Behind this valley is a semicircle

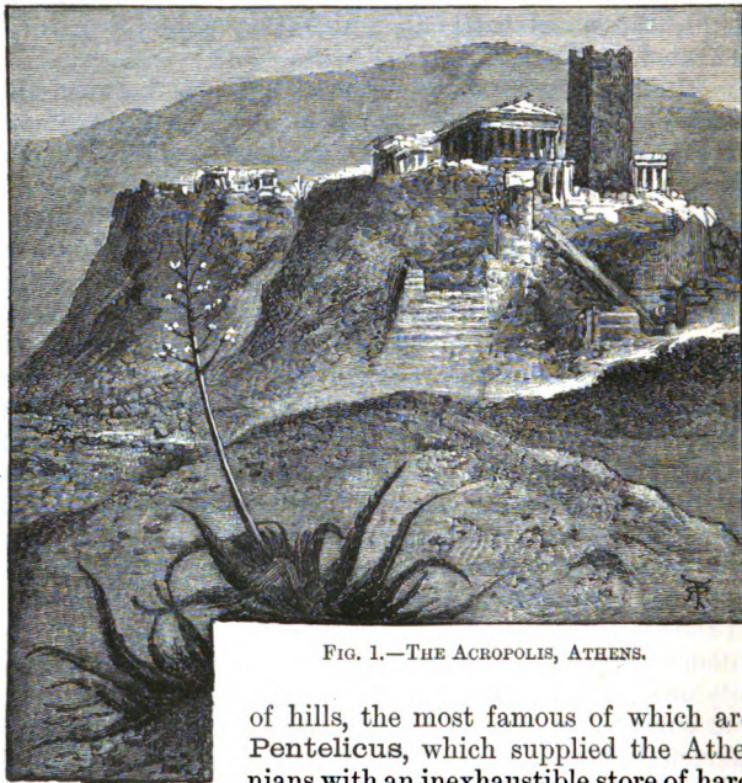


FIG. 1.—THE ACROPOLIS, ATHENS.

of hills, the most famous of which are Pentelicus, which supplied the Athenians with an inexhaustible store of hard white marble; and Hymettus, celebrated still, as in ancient times, for its bees. Through the valley flow two streams, the Cephissus and the Ilissus; and between them, about three miles from the sea, there is a plateau on which stands the steep, square rock that formed the acropolis of Athens. The acropolis was called Cecropia, and the city was supposed by some to have been founded by Cecrops, a native of Sais in Egypt. In the great age of Athenian history the summit was covered by magnificent buildings,

which could be approached only from the Agora or market-place, on the western side. Marble steps led to the top through the Propylæa, a splendid gateway with wings to right and left. Almost opposite the Propylæa was a great bronze statue of Athenè, the protectress of Athens, in full armour, by Phidias. The grandest building on the acropolis was the Parthenon, the temple of Athenè. It contained a magnificent statue of the goddess, made of ivory and gold, also by Phidias. Another temple was the Erechtheum, dedicated to Poseidon; and a third, small in size, but of exquisite design and workmanship, was dedicated to Nike Apteros or Wingless Victory. All these buildings were elaborately decorated with sculpture, and could be seen from a great distance at sea. With the violet hills in the background, the scene was one of matchless beauty.

Athens itself, surrounded by walls, spread out on the plateau around the acropolis. The private dwellings, few of which had windows towards the front, were not very attractive; but some of the public buildings—such as the temples of Zeus and Theseus—vied in splendour with those on the acropolis. Near the acropolis is a low hill on which sat the Areopagus, the supreme court of justice; and beyond it is Pnyx hill, on which the people met to regulate public affairs. Beyond the walls were the Academy, the grove in which Plato taught, and the Lyceum, associated in the same way with the name of Aristotle.

For a long time Athens used as its seaport the roadstead of PHALERUM, but afterwards its seaports were PIRÆUS and MUNUCHIA, on the peninsula of Piræus, which were connected with the city by means of two high walls.

When at the height of its greatness, Athens had probably about 150,000 inhabitants. The entire population of Attica may have been about half a million; but four-fifths of this number were slaves. There were not more than 21,000 free citizens.

In the varying fortunes of later ages all that was most precious in Athens was often sadly damaged, sometimes by inhabitants, sometimes by invaders. In 1687 the city was bombarded by the Venetians, and in the war of liberation it

was almost wholly destroyed. In 1834 the seat of government of the Hellenic kingdom was transferred from Nauplia to Athens, and since that time a new city, planned in accordance with western ideas, has gradually grown up. At the last census the population was 84,903. Among the modern buildings are a royal palace, a university, and an observatory. Enough remains of the Propylæa, the Parthenon, and the Erechtheum to give some conception of the former glory of the acropolis ; and the temple of Nike Apteros, the stones of which the Turks had used for the construction of a battery, has been rebuilt of the original materials. Of all the old buildings of Athens, and of Greece generally, the temple of Theseus is best preserved. Among other surviving monuments are a small octagonal temple of the winds, and some pillars of the temple of Zeus.

The seaport of modern Athens is PIRÆUS (pop. 21,055), with which it is connected by a railway. North-westward from Piræus is the fishing village LEVSINA, on the site of the ancient *Eleusis*, where was a great temple of the goddess Demeter. About twenty miles north-east of Athens is the plain of Marathon, on which, in 490 B.C., one of the most memorable battles in the history of the world was fought. A village called Marathon still exists on the plain, and near it are the mounds which were raised over the bodies of the Greek warriors killed in the fight. In the south of Attica were the great lead and silver mines of LAURIUM. These mines have been reopened in modern times, and are worked with some success, the headquarters of the workers being at ERGASTERIA.

**24. Megaris.**—*Megaris*, which lies to the west of Attica, is crossed by the Geranian mountains, which shut off the Peloponnesus from the rest of Greece. This chain is connected with the Cithæron range by hills, which, skirting the western coast of Megaris, overlook the Corinthian Gulf. Near the south-eastern coast is the town of MEGARA. The district is wild and infertile, but its geographical position has always secured for it a certain degree of importance.

**25. The Peloponnesus.**—From Megaris we pass through the isthmus of Corinth into the Peleponnesus,

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which, from the notion that it spread out like a mulberry-leaf, received from the Franks the name of the Morea. Its ancient name means the island of Pelops, one of the mythical heroes of Greece.

**26. Arcadia.**—*Arcadia*, the central table-land, is watered by the Alpheus, the longest river in the peninsula, and its tributary the Ladon ; but, except in some small secluded valleys, the district is too rugged to be suited for anything but the pasturage of sheep and goats. The chief town is TRIPOLITZA, near which are the ruins of ancient *Tegea*. North of Tegea are some remains of *Mantinea*, in what is now a marshy and desolate region. Here Epaminondas was killed in battle in 362 B.C. In the south-western corner is the site of *Phigalia*, and on a hill stand the remains of a temple of Apollo, one of the finest existing relics of ancient Greece.

**27. Argolis.**—East of Arcadia is *Argolis*, a part of which is a peninsula with a remarkably varied coast-line, in which are some good natural harbours. Most of the surface of this peninsula is mountainous and barren, but in the west a fertile valley, surrounded on all sides by mountains, has been formed by the river Inachus. On the Inachus, two miles from the coast, lies ARGOS, one of the most famous cities in the legendary history of Greece. Larissa, on which was its citadel, rises to a great height above the plain, and near it is a lower hill, with which it is connected. Between and at the foot of these hills is the modern city of ARGOS (pop. 9861), a prosperous town, with many beautiful gardens. Southward, on the coast, is NAUPLIA, a trading town, which was the capital of the Hellenic kingdom until 1834. Between Nauplia and Argos are the ruined walls and citadel of *Tiryns*, formed of huge unhewn blocks of stone, the gaps between which are filled up with smaller stones. Northward is *Mycenæ*; a city so great in early times that in the Homeric legend Agamemnon, its king, holds the office of leader of the Hellenic hosts before the walls of Troy. Here is a prehistoric tomb called the treasury of Atreus. The walls of Mycenæ resemble those of Tiryns in being made of vast stones of irregular shape ; but they are hewn, and each

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is fitted into its proper place, and over the gate are placed two sculptured lions. Similar walls survive on Larissa, the citadel of Argos. These structures seemed to the later Greeks so astonishing that they were supposed to be the work of the Cyclopes.

**28. Corinth.**—North of Argolis is *Corinth*, which includes the isthmus that separates the Corinthian Gulf from the Gulf of *Ægina*. The district is barren, but its position between two seas made the city of **CORINTH** the greatest trading centre of ancient Greece. This city lay at the foot of Acrocorinth, a steep rocky height which formed a magnificent acropolis. Corinth was destroyed by an earthquake in 1858, and has been rebuilt on a more convenient site beside the shore of the Gulf of Corinth.

**29. Sicyon.**—West of Corinth was a small district called *Sicyon*, with a famous city of the same name, some remains of which exist near the village Vasilico.

**30. Achaia.**—*Achaia* occupies nearly the whole of the southern coast of the Gulf of Corinth. It derived its name from the Achæans, who seem at an early period to have occupied the entire peninsula. Defeated by the Dorians, those of them who retained their freedom were said to have settled in this district. Inland, Achaia is covered by offshoots of the Arcadian mountains, but along the coast is a plain, on which were most of the cities of the ancient Achæan League. **PATRAS** (pop. 25,494) is now the chief trading town of the Peloponnesus. Here, according to old traditions, St. Andrew suffered martyrdom.

**31. Elis.**—*Elis*, through which the Alpheus passes to the sea, is famous chiefly as the district where the Olympian games were celebrated. They were held at **Olympia**, a sacred spot on the Alpheus, where were splendid temples, altars, and groves. Many ruins survive, from which a German expedition has recently recovered various treasures of art.

**32. Messenia.**—In the southern part of the Peloponnesus are *Messenia* and *Laconia*, forming together a district which terminates in three subordinate peninsulas. The Pamisus—now called Dipotamos—is the central geographical feature of Messenia. About the middle of its course

it flows through a valley narrowed by hills, but above and below this point it forms wide, fertile, and beautiful plains. In these valleys, which are more richly cultivated than any other part of Greece, the great aloe, the citron, and the orange grow abundantly. The chief modern town is CALAMATA (pop. 7609), not far from the shore of the Gulf of Coron: Off NAVARINO a great naval battle was fought in 1827. Near the centre of the district, on the Pamisus, are the ruins of the ancient city *Messene*.

**33. Laconia.**—In *Laconia* the valley of the Eurotas, bounded in the west by the Taygetus range and in the east by the Parnon range, holds a position corresponding to that of the Pamisus in *Messenia*. Near the centre of this valley, well protected by the neighbouring hills and mountains, lay ancient *Sparta*, famous in heroic as well as in historical ages. A modern town of considerable importance, called *SPARTA*, has grown up since 1834. A little to the south are the ruins of *Amyclæ*; and to the west is the village of Misitra, above which, on a rocky spur of the Taygetus mountains, are the picturesque remains of a fortress built in the thirteenth century by a Frankish prince of the Morea.

**34. Islands.**—The islands of Greece form a very important part of the Hellenic kingdom. The largest of them is *Eubœa*, sometimes called *Negropont*, a name it received from the Venetians. It is long and narrow, separated from the mainland by a narrow arm of the Ægean Sea. Near the centre is Mount Delphi, and there are other mountains along the eastern coast, which is rocky, with steep cliffs. The mountains slope gradually towards the west, where there are many fertile plains. The chief town is *CHALCIS* (pop. 6877), which has from time immemorial been connected with the mainland by a bridge. *CARYSTO*, a fortified port, is famous for its marble and asbestos.

**35. The Cyclades.**—North of Eubœa are the *Sporades*, and to the south the *Cyclades*, which were so called because the islands of the group seemed to the ancients to form a circle round the sacred island *Delos*, which they supposed to be the birthplace of Apollo and Artemis. The largest and most fertile of the *Cyclades* is *Naxos*, which formed

at one time the centre of a Venetian duchy that included a good many islands of the Archipelago. On the north-western coast is **NAXIA**, the chief town, where the ducal palace still exists. In **Andros** and **Tinos** there is a considerable population, and in the latter island the manufacture of silk and other industries are carried on. The inhabitants of **Mykonos**, a rocky and barren island, are well known as expert sailors. **Thera**, or *Santorini*, in the form of a crescent, is the eastern part of the crater of a volcano, the western part of which is now below the sea. Earthquakes and volcanic eruptions are frequent, and in historical times various islets have emerged in the space enclosed by Thera and Therisia. The soil of Thera is fertile, and maintains a comparatively large and prosperous population. **Melos**, or *Milo*, is also of volcanic origin, and has many hot mineral springs. In the chief town, **MILO**, there are, with other remains, the ruins of an ancient theatre, near which, in 1820, a Greek peasant found one of the finest works of art that have come down to us from antiquity, the so-called *Venus of Milo*. In ancient times **Paros** was celebrated for its marble, but the quarries are exhausted, and the island has lost its former prosperity. **Syros**, although not very fertile, has been made by trade the most prosperous island in the Cyclades. Its chief town, **SYRA** or *Hermopolis* (pop. 21,245), built on terraces rising from a bay on the east coast, is one of the most flourishing commercial centres in the Hellenic kingdom.

**36. Salamis and Aegina.**—In the Gulf of Aegina, between Attica and Megaris, is the island of **Salamis**, off which, in the channel separating the island from Attica, was fought in 480 b.c. a great naval battle between the Greeks and the Persians. To the south lies **Aegina**, with some beautiful remains of ancient buildings, the most famous of which is a temple that was dedicated to Athene.

**37. Islands off Argolis.**—Off the coast of Argolis are the islands **Calauria**, which in ancient times had a great temple of Poseidon; **Poros**, with a fine harbour, the chief naval establishment of Greece; **Hydra**, the capital of which, of the same name (pop. 6446), is a beautiful town

with trade and various industries ; **Tiparenus**, now called **Spetsai**, whose chief town, **SPETSAI** (pop. 6495), is also a centre of trade.

**38. The Ionian Islands.**—The *Ionian* islands are a group on the western and southern coasts of Greece. From 1386 to 1797 they were under the dominion of the Venetian Republic. After a period during which there were several changes they were formed in 1815 into a republic under the protectorate of England ; and in 1864, at the request of the inhabitants, they were incorporated with the Hellenic kingdom.

The group consists of many islands, seven of which are more or less important. All of them are mountainous, but the soil is generally well adapted for the growth of the olive and the vine. The majority of the population

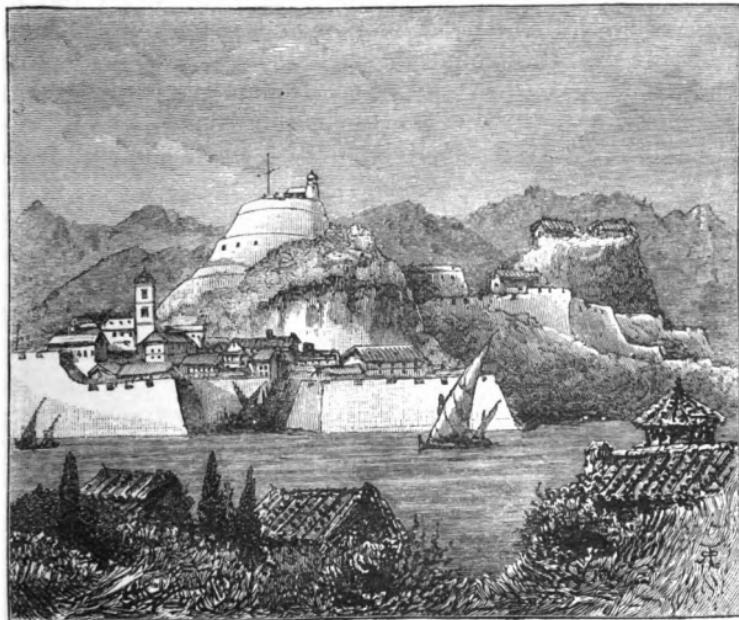


FIG. 2.—CORFU.

are either traders or sailors. The language of the islanders is Greek, but the supremacy of the Venetians led to the adoption of many Italian words.

The most northerly and the most important member of the group is **Corfu**, opposite Albania. On a bay on the east coast is the chief town, **CORFU** (pop. 16,515), a trading town, finely situated, with a university. Under the Venetians its fortifications were among the strongest in the world. The island of **Praxos** is small, with little trade. Cape Ducato, at the south of Leucas or Santa Maura, was in ancient times crowned by a temple of Apollo. The chief town of this island, **AMAXIKI**, is on the north-eastern coast. **Cephalonia** is the largest of the Ionian islands, and in the south-west there is a fine bay with some good harbours, on one of which is **ARGOSTOLI** (pop. 7871). To the east of Cephalonia is **Ithaca**, famous as the island-kingdom of Ulysses. **Zante**, with mountains in the west and plains in the east, is a beautiful island celebrated for its wine. On the east coast is the trading town **ZANTE** (pop. 16,280). **Cythera**, or *Cerigo*, lies off the southern coast of the Peloponnesus, and is at a considerable distance from any of the other Ionian islands. It was famous in the ancient world as the island which was supposed to have received Aphrodite when she rose from the foam of the sea.

## CHAPTER III

### ITALY

1. Passing westward, we come to the next great peninsula of the Mediterranean, ITALY. The word Italy probably means the land of cattle, and was originally the name of the southern part of Calabria. As this portion of the country was best known to Greek mariners, the name came to be used by them in a wider sense, and from the time of Augustus it has been applied to the entire peninsula.

2. **Boundaries.**—Italy is very distinctly marked off by nature from neighbouring lands. On the east it is bounded by the Adriatic Sea, on the south by the Mediterranean, on the west by the Tyrrhenian and Ligurian Seas, while in the north it is separated by the Alps from central, western, and eastern Europe.

3. **The Coast.**—The peninsula of Italy has the shape of a boot, with the island of Sicily opposite the toe. At the southern extremity is the Gulf of Taranto, forming the two great promontories of Apulia in the east and Calabria in the west. On the western coast of the peninsula there are a good many openings, the chief of which are the Gulf of Salerno and the Gulf of Gaëta, with the Bay of Naples between them. The eastern coast is more regular, and has few good harbours ; and this is one of the reasons why, as a whole, it has been less important historically than the western coast.

4. **Physical Features.**—The physical character of the greater part of the country is determined by the **Apennines**, which occupy almost the whole of the peninsular

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portion of Italy. The Apennines consist chiefly of limestone, and are much less lofty than the Alps, of which they may be regarded as an offshoot. They also differ from the Alps in having few peaks rising to a great elevation above their general level.

The Apennines begin at the north-western corner of the Italian coast, a little to the north-east of Genoa, where they are closely connected with the Ligurian Alps, a prolongation of the Maritime Alps. Although they form an unbroken chain, it is convenient to distinguish between the northern, the central, and the southern Apennines. The *northern* Apennines, which extend in a south-easterly direction to the sources of the Tiber, include the Apuan hills—in which are the famous marble quarries of Carrara and Serravezza—and the Etruscan Apennines, which reach in **Monte Cimone** an elevation of 7107 feet. The *central* Apennines, reaching from the sources of the Tiber to those of the Volturno, take in the Roman Apennines and the Abruzzi. This part of the range lies much closer to the eastern than to the western coast. The Roman Apennines form in the main a single chain, but the Abruzzi, extending to the south-east of the Sibylline hills, are broken into three more or less parallel chains, which come together again about the sources of the Volturno. In the most easterly of these chains are the loftiest mountains of the Apennines, the highest of which is the **Gran Sasso d'Italia**, one of whose peaks, **Monte Corno**, reaches an elevation of 9810 feet. The *southern* Apennines are less regular than the rest of the chain, but the main line may be followed southward almost to the end of the promontory of Calabria. In the east, on a promontory sometimes called the spur of the peninsula, rises **Monte Gargano**, connected with the main chain only by low hills. Almost opposite this mountain, on the western shore, is the volcanic mountain, **Vesuvius**; and a rocky chain occupies the peninsula between the Bay of Naples and the Gulf of Salerno. In ancient times the Apennines were covered with forests, and this is still true of the Ligurian and of a part of the Etruscan Apennines. Forests grow elsewhere on isolated parts of the range, but there are also great mountainous

tracts of heath, and in some places the surface consists of bare limestone.

Between the Apennines and the Alps lies a wide plain called the **Plain of Lombardy**, but including also the districts of Piedmont and Venice. This plain is only slightly interrupted in two places, in the east, by the Berician hills and the Euganean hills, low-lying ranges which are remarkable for their beautiful valleys and rich vegetation. In the north, fed by streams from the Alps, is a splendid group of lakes, the chief of which are the lakes **Maggiore**, **Como**, **Iseo**, and **Garda**. Protected from rough winds by the lofty mountain ranges in the background, they are surrounded by the laurel, the cypress, the citron, and other plants which will not grow in more exposed districts in the southern part of the plain.

From west to east, throughout its entire breadth, the plain is watered by the **Po**. This great river rises on **Monte Viso**, between the Cottian and the Maritime Alps, and, as a small mountain torrent, takes first an easterly direction. Then it flows for a little way towards the north, gradually sweeping round to the east, the direction it maintains until it flows into the Adriatic. Its upper course extends to the point at which it is joined by the **Ticino**, which, springing at St. Gothard, flows into the Po from Lake Maggiore. Above the Ticino the Po receives from the Apennines the **Tanaro**, with its tributaries the **Stura** and the **Bormida**; and from the Alps the **Dora Ripera**, the **Dora Baltea**, and the **Sessia**. Below the Ticino many small tributaries come from the Apennines, but the most important are those thrown off by the Alps—the **Adda**, which passes through Lake Como; the **Oglio**, through Lake Iseo; the **Mincio**, through Lake Garda.

The eastern part of the northern plain is watered by many other rivers besides the Po and its tributaries. The **Adige**, which in its lower course is parallel with the Po, comes from the Rhætian Alps; the **Bacchiglione** and the **Brenta** from the Tridentine Alps; the **Piave**, the **Livenza**, and the **Tagliamento** from the Carnic Alps. All these rivers flow into the Gulf of Venice.

Thus abundantly watered, the northern plain of Italy

is one of the most fertile districts in the world. It produces rich crops of wheat, maize, and rice; and in some places fields are mown six times in the year.

On the southern slope of the northern Apennines, at Monte Falterano, rises the river **Arno**, not far from which, at Monte Caronaro, are the sources of the **Tiber**. These are the two principal rivers of the peninsular part of Italy. The Arno flows first to the south, but, sweeping round to the north, it takes finally a westerly direction through a fruitful and beautiful valley towards the Ligurian Sea. The Tiber, along almost its entire course, has a southerly direction. Its chief tributaries are the *Chiana* on the right bank, and the *Nera* and *Teverone* on the left. The valley of the Tiber, high, narrow, and wild near the source, gradually widens out into broad meadow-land.

Between the Tiber and the Arno there is a great highland district, watered by the river **Ombrone**. The hills between the Ombrone and the Arno are called the Etrurian or Tuscan hills; along the coast they are bordered by a low-lying marshy district called the **Maremma**. Between the Ombrone and the Tiber are a number of volcanic hills, the loftiest of which is Monte **Amiata**, 5680 feet high. In this district are several lakes, the largest of which is the shallow Lake **Trasimeno**, surrounded by olive-covered hills. To the south lie the lakes of Bolsena, Vico, and Bracciano. The lakes of Albano and Nemi lie among the volcanic **Alban hills** to the south of the Tiber.

Along the shore, at the mouth of the Tiber, corresponding to the Maremma in the north, is an open district called the **Campagna di Roma**, with the Sabine hills in the east and the Alban hills in the south. The Campagna consists of great level tracts, contrasting here and there with gently undulating districts. To the southeast lie the Pontine marshes, beyond which are the Volscian hills, with a valley watered by the **Garigliano**. The **Volturno** flows through the plain of Campania, one of the most extensive and fertile valleys in Italy.

On the eastern side of the southern Apennines is the plain of Apulia, a comparatively dry and barren district, forming a striking contrast to the fine plain of Campania.

In this district the **Ofanto** is one of the chief rivers. Farther to the north many small streams break through precipitous gorges in the Apennines to the Adriatic.

**5. Climate.**—Apart from its rich historical associations, Italy is a land of singular beauty and charm. It has every variety of picturesque landscape, the colours of which glow in the sunlight, while its forms stand out with extraordinary distinctness in the clear atmosphere. The winter is sometimes severe in the valley of the Po, but it is nowhere so harsh as in countries lying to the north of the Alps, and it becomes less and less cold as we advance towards the south of the peninsula. In the southern districts the summer is so warm that during that season rain hardly ever falls. These districts are sometimes visited by a dry, hot wind called the Sirocco, which probably crosses the Mediterranean from the desert of Sahara. It brings with it much fine dust, and as long as it lasts is very injurious to vegetation. A more wholesome wind called Tramontana blows in summer from the north.

**6. Races in Italy.**—The primitive inhabitants of Italy seem to have belonged to the small, dark-eyed, long-skulled race who spread in early times along the Mediterranean shores. They are still largely represented in Italy, especially in the southern part of the peninsula and in Sicily. At an unknown period tribes of the dark-eyed, round-skulled type invaded the country, and with them a portion of the primitive race mingled, while others were driven towards the south. Then came the tall, blue-eyed Aryans. Of the groups belonging to this race, the **Latins** were the earliest settlers. They pushed their way far to the south, but their special home was Latium, a district lying to the south-east of the lower Tiber. The Latins were followed by the **Umbro-Sabellian** tribes, two of whose dialects, the Oscan and the Umbrian, are to some extent known. They are intimately related to one another, and have also close affinities to Latin; so that all three were languages belonging to the same branch of the Aryan stock. The **Samnites** and the **Sabines** were the most prominent of the Sabellian tribes. The Samnites (who spoke the Oscan dialect) occupied the southern Apennines; the Sabines,

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much of the district now called Umbria. The **Umbrians** held a part of the same district, and of the district now called the Marches.

Before the rise of the Roman power the district between the Arno and the Tiber was held by the **Etruscans**, who were comparatively a highly civilised people. They had a decided aptitude for art, especially for architecture, and had the means of carrying on an extensive trade. We do not know to what family of languages their speech belonged, but they themselves were a mixed people, some being round-skulled, others long-skulled. At an early period they had held, in addition to the territory with which their name is associated, a great part of the northern plain, but from this region they were driven by **Gallic** tribes, who took permanent possession of it. These Gallic settlers were afterwards called **Cisalpine Gauls**, the people of Gaul itself being known as **Transalpine Gauls**. The Cisalpine Gauls gradually extended their territory until it reached the neighbourhood of Ancona, where it bordered on the land of the Umbrians. They were kept from the north-eastern coast by the **Veneti**, who held much of the district still called Venetia; and from the north-western coast by the **Ligurians**, who spread along the coast from the lower Rhone to the Arno.

On the coasts of southern Italy and Sicily the **Greeks** had in early times many important colonial settlements; and here their influence was so strong that the native tribes by whom they were surrounded, whether Aryan or non-Aryan, became thoroughly Hellenised. In some districts the use of the Greek language survived the Roman Empire, and did not wholly die out until the twelfth century.

**7. Ancient Rome.**—The power by which the various peoples of ancient Italy were first brought under a common rule was Rome. According to most of the Roman writers who referred to the subject, the city was founded in the year which we should describe as 753 B.C.; but the real date is not known. Having overcome the most formidable of her internal difficulties, Rome gradually spread her dominion, until the whole peninsula with the northern plain was brought

under her sway. In accomplishing this part of her task she was not greatly aided by her geographical position. Rome is near the centre of the western seaboard, but this gave her armies no advantage in penetrating to tribes protected by natural barriers in distant mountain fastnesses. But when Italy was conquered, Rome owed much to geographical conditions, for the peninsula is the centre of the Mediterranean lands, and access by sea to remote regions was therefore comparatively easy. Had Rome been an inland city in a continent, it would hardly have been possible for her to build up a vast and stable dominion. As the mistress of a peninsula which looks across the Mediterranean to Africa, with the Iberian peninsula on one side and the Balkan peninsula on the other, she had every opportunity for the conquest of the innumerable territories included within her empire.

**8. Later History.**—After the fall of the western Roman Empire in the fifth century, Italy was ruled first by the barbarian Odoacer, and afterwards by Theodoric the east Goth. Both of them resided at Ravenna, where the later western emperors had established the seat of government. They nominally represented the eastern emperor, but were in reality independent. The east Gothic kingdom was finally overthrown by Narses, the general of the eastern emperor, Justinian, by whom the successful soldier was made exarch of Italy, the capital being still Ravenna. During the latter half of the sixth century the **Longobardi**, a Teutonic tribe, entered the country, and formed the northern half of Italy, with the exception of a narrow strip of territory called the exarchate of Ravenna, into a kingdom, which they made no pretence of ruling in the name of the eastern Crown. This kingdom was subdued in the eighth century by the **Franks**, and afterwards it formed a part of the Holy Roman Empire, of which Germany was the chief kingdom.

The rulers of this empire often found it hard to visit their Italian territories, and the consequence was that many principalities and commonwealths grew up in northern Italy, and became practically independent. In course of time most of the free Italian commonwealths fell

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under the power of tyrants, and became principalities; and after many wars they were made directly or indirectly subject to the Austrian branch of the House of Hapsburg.

For some time southern Italy and Sicily continued to be connected with the eastern empire, but in the ninth and tenth centuries Sicily was conquered by the Saracens. In the two following centuries Sicily and southern Italy were formed into a kingdom by the Normans. This kingdom was often divided into two, and came to be known as the **kingdom of the Two Sicilies**. It passed through many dynastic changes, but retained almost the same northern boundary from the beginning to the end of its history.

Between the northern principalities and the southern kingdom gradually grew up the dominions of the **Papacy**. The nucleus of these dominions was formed by lands granted to the pope by Pipin, king of the Franks, in 752. The popes missed no opportunity of adding to them, and thus were enabled, not only in virtue of their spiritual functions, but as temporal rulers, to play a great part in Italian history.

After the Napoleonic wars, during which Italy was divided into a number of new states, the divisions which had existed before the French Revolution were restored. The Italians, however, had begun to feel that they were one people, and the best among them resolved that the disunion of their country should be brought to an end. Their object was attained through the **King of Sardinia**, the chief part of whose territory, although he derived his royal rank from Sardinia, was Piedmont. In 1859, after a war in which King Victor Emmanuel fought side by side with the French against the Austrians, Lombardy was taken from Austria and joined to Piedmont. The annexation of Parma, Modena, Tuscany, Romagna, and Umbria soon followed; and in 1860 and 1861, mainly through the valour of the great national hero Garibaldi, Sicily and the kingdom of Naples were added to the growing state. Venetia was obtained in consequence of the war of 1866, in which Italy acted as the

ally of Prussia against Austria ; and in 1870, while war was going on between Germany and France, King Victor Emmanuel seized what remained of the papal dominions, including Rome, to which the seat of government was transferred from Florence.

**9. Area, Population, and National Character.**—The area of Italy, including the islands, is 110,620 square miles, and at the census of 1881 the population was 28,459,628. This gives an average of 256 inhabitants to every square mile.

The population is composed of many widely different elements, but they have long been amalgamated ; so that the Italians, notwithstanding local differences of custom and character, form a thoroughly united people. Their speech is one of the languages directly derived from Latin. It has many dialects, the purest of which is that spoken in Tuscany.

The Italians are an eminently sociable people, and distinguished by their love for beautiful forms and colours. They are quick to resent an injury, but not less remarkable for the readiness with which they appreciate and respond to generous impulse. They do not, as a rule, work so hard as the people of northern countries, partly because the climate is not so suitable for severe labour, and partly because their physical wants are comparatively easily satisfied. Italians have always been famous for the passion with which they attach themselves to political parties ; and in former times, when the country was broken up into a number of petty states, they acquired a reputation for attaining their ends by unscrupulous methods. Now the tone of public life is not inferior to that which exists in most other free nations.

In all departments of intellectual progress Italy has made splendid contributions to western civilisation. Dante, her greatest poet, ranks among the foremost men of genius whom the world has produced ; and Italian literature has also been made illustrious by Petrarch, Ariosto, Tasso, and other famous writers. At the time of the Renascence, when, with regard to things of the mind, Europe entered upon a new phase of evolution, Italy took

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the lead ; and to Michael Angelo, Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael, Titian, and many other Italian artists of that period, we owe some of the noblest achievements of modern art. It was in Italy that music was first seriously developed ; and Galileo and Volta are among the names of Italian discoverers who have marked an era in the history of physical science.

**10. Government.**—In 1848 Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, established a constitutional system of government in his dominions ; and an expansion of this system forms the present constitution of Italy. Parliament consists of two chambers—the Senate, composed of those royal princes who are of full age, and of members appointed by the king for life ; and the Chamber of Deputies, elected by the people. The king's ministers form the Cabinet, and hold office as long as they command a majority in Parliament.

The fact that Italy has powerful neighbours on her northern border makes it necessary for her to have a great army and navy. All Italian men of mature years are liable to military service. The army is divided into the permanent army and the militia, which together, in 1887, consisted of 2,590,172 men, including officers. The navy had in 1887, besides officers, 12,496 men.

**11. Religion and Education.**—All forms of religion are tolerated, but with few exceptions the people belong to the Roman Church, the head of which, the Pope, although deprived in 1870 of temporal authority, has still the rank and dignity of a reigning prince. The Roman Church in Italy has fifty-one archbishops and 223 bishops, besides six cardinal bishops who have Italian sees. These dignitaries are appointed by the pope, but bishops and archbishops cannot be installed without the consent of the Crown.

The law requires that every child shall attend a primary school, but it is imperfectly enforced, and a great proportion of the population is unable to read and write. This proportion is much larger in the south than in the north. There are many good secondary schools, and ample provision is made for the highest departments of

education in twenty-one universities, seventeen of which are state institutions, while the rest are Roman Catholic universities. Of the seventeen state universities, those of Bologna, Naples, Palermo, Pavia, Pisa, and Turin are complete universities; the others have only certain faculties. There are also many institutions for elementary and advanced technical instruction.

**12. Industry and Trade.**—Of the total area of Italy rather more than 86 per cent is in one way or another productive. The land is for the most part cultivated by peasants, from whom the owners receive, not a fixed rent, but a certain proportion—generally one-half—of the produce after provision has been made for the maintenance of the stock. This is called the *mezzeria* or *metayer* system, and does not, of course, work so well as if the peasants owned the land they cultivate; but it puts them in a much better position than that of mere day-labourers.

Cereals are grown in the northern plain, and in the river-valleys to the west of the Apennines. The chief crop is wheat, but Italy does not produce enough of it for the supply of her wants. Another important crop is rice, for the growth of which the low-lying lands are well adapted. A considerable quantity of tobacco is also grown. On the terraced slopes of the Apennines the vine is largely cultivated, and much wine is produced, but not of the best qualities. There are also many olive groves, and a good deal of land is set apart for the cotton plant, chestnut-trees, and mulberry-trees, and for the cultivation of oranges, citrons, figs, pomegranates, and other southern fruits. In the cooler seasons the marsh-lands of the western coast afford excellent pasturage for cattle and sheep, which in the hotter months are removed to the hills.

Of the minerals of Italy, sulphur is the most important. It is found chiefly in Sicily, whence comes most of the sulphur used in Europe. Iron is found in Lombardy, Elba, and Sardinia; and of the quantity raised a part is worked in Italy, a part is exported. Other minerals produced in considerable quantities are zinc, copper, lead, and silver. Italy is famous for her

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quarries, especially her marble quarries, some of which are of great value.

The most important manufacture in Italy is that of silk, which is produced chiefly in Lombardy. It is to feed the silkworm that mulberry-trees are cultivated. Other products are beetroot-sugar and leather, and a reputation has been gained by some places for the manner in which corals are worked, by others for the preparation of the finer kinds of straw-plaiting.

During the middle ages, when Italy was near the centre of the known world, the north Italian cities became by far the most important trading communities in Europe. They distributed the products of the South and the East in Germany, France, and England, and their leading citizens amassed wealth which enabled them to gratify to the utmost their taste for luxury and splendour. The British Isles are the real centre of the land-masses of the globe, and when, after the discovery of America, this was found out, the chief place in commerce was gradually transferred from Italy to England. Italy, however, has still an important trade, which was greatly increased by the making of the Suez Canal and by the construction of the railways which pass through tunnels under the Alps.

The foreign trade of Italy is carried on chiefly with France, England, Austria, and Germany. Among the principal exports are silk, wine, olive-oil, southern fruits, eggs, sulphur, hemp, rice, manufactured coral, raw cotton, straw-plaiting, and marble. Among the principal imports are wheat, raw cotton, coal, wool and woollen stuffs, hides, timber, and machinery.

**13. Divisions.**—The kingdom is divided into sixty-nine provinces, over each of which is a prefect, appointed by the central Government. The names of the older historic divisions, however, are still current.

**14. Piedmont.**—The most densely populated district is the northern plain, where industry and trade can be carried on under the most favourable conditions. The western part of it is occupied by *Piedmont*, many of the inhabitants of which are tall and blue-eyed, a fact which seems to indicate that they are mainly of Keltic and Teutonic descent. Near

the centre of the province, on the Po, is TURIN (pop. 230,183), formerly the capital of the kingdom of Sardinia, and of Italy until 1865. It is regularly built, with wide streets; and in the background are lofty snow-covered Alpine peaks. It has a university and an academy of sciences, and important silk and woollen manufactures. ALESSANDRIA (pop. 30,761), at the junction of the rivers Tanaro and Bormida, was built in 1168 by the allied Lombard cities in their war with Frederick Barbarossa, and called after Pope Alexander III. Near it is the village MARENGO, where Napoleon defeated the Austrians in 1800.

15. **Liguria.**—South of Piedmont, along the coast, is the district called *Liguria*, or the eastern Riviera, sheltered from the cold winds of winter by the Ligurian Alps, and commanding lovely views of the Mediterranean. The great city of this district is GENOA (pop. 138,081), which, even in the time of the Romans, was well known as a trading town. From the beginning of the twelfth century it was a republic, and its merchants carried on a great trade with the Levant. It was annexed to the kingdom of Sardinia in 1814. Built between two hills, it rises in terraces overlooking the sea; and, as seen from its fine harbour, it is one of the most magnificent cities in the world. It has many beautiful churches and marble palaces; and in the Piazza d'Aguaverde stands the statue of Columbus, who was born in Genoa. The town is famous for its silk, manufactured corals, and work in gold, silver, and ivory.

16. **Lombardy.**—*Lombardy* derives its name from the Longobardi, of whose kingdom it was the most important district. They chose as their capital PAVIA (called in ancient times Ticinum), near the junction of the Ticino with the Po, and this city remained the capital of the north Italian Kingdom. It used to be known as the City of a Hundred Towers, but is now a comparatively small trading place (pop. 29,836). It has an ancient and famous university. The chief town of Lombardy is MILAN (pop. 295,543), on the Olona. Milan (*Mediolanum*) was originally the capital of the Isubres, a Gallic tribe. It rose to great prosperity in the time of the Roman Empire, and was the favourite residence

of many emperors. For a time it was eclipsed by Pavia ; but during the middle ages its central position enabled it, through trade, to recover its former splendour. In the fourteenth century it became a duchy ; and from 1714 to 1859 it was ruled by the House of Hapsburg. It has a Gothic cathedral built of marble, the third largest church in Europe. In the church of St. Ambrose the rulers of the Holy Roman Empire received the Iron Crown of Italy. The Dominican church of "Santa Maria delle Grazie" is famous because in its refectory is the great fresco, "The Last Supper," by Leonardo da Vinci—a picture now sadly defaced. Milan is the chief trading town of northern Italy. To the north, on the Lambro, lies MONZA, in the cathedral of which is kept the Iron Crown. It is made of gold, and adorned with costly gems ; but on the inner side it has a thin narrow hoop of iron, beaten out, according to an old legend, from a nail of the Cross brought from Palestine by the Empress Helena, mother of Constantine the Great. COMO, on the beautiful lake of the same name, has a fine cathedral. It was the birthplace of Volta, and has erected a statue in his honour. BRESCIA (pop. 43,354) has manufactures of iron and silk, and much trade. Near it is SOLFERINO, where the French defeated the Austrians in 1859. MANTUA, in a marshy district on the Mincio, is the strongest military position in northern Italy, and possesses many treasures of art. Near it is the village PIETOLO, which is believed to represent the ancient *Andes*, the birthplace of Virgil. CREMONA, on the Po, is famous for its violins. The campanile of its cathedral is the highest tower in Lombardy.

17. **Venetia.**—*Venetia*, which occupies the eastern part of the northern plain, derives its name from the ancient Veneti, whose territory became a rich province under the Romans, with many important towns, of which AQUILEIA was the chief. In the north-east is VENICE (pop. 129,445), a city of fascinating beauty, with a brilliant history. Between the mouth of the Piave and that of the Adige a narrow sandbank, divided into islets by sea-passages, encloses a lagoon, by which it is separated from the mainland. On some of the islets of this sandbank Venice is built. The

earliest of the settlements from which the city sprang were formed in the fifth century by refugees flying from the Huns. Others were afterwards formed. In 697 the people chose for themselves a dux or doge, and from that time the city grew, as an aristocratic republic, both in extent and in importance. It retained its allegiance to the Byzantine Empire, and thus had unusual facilities for the development of its commerce in the East. The republic became not only a great trading, but a great conquering

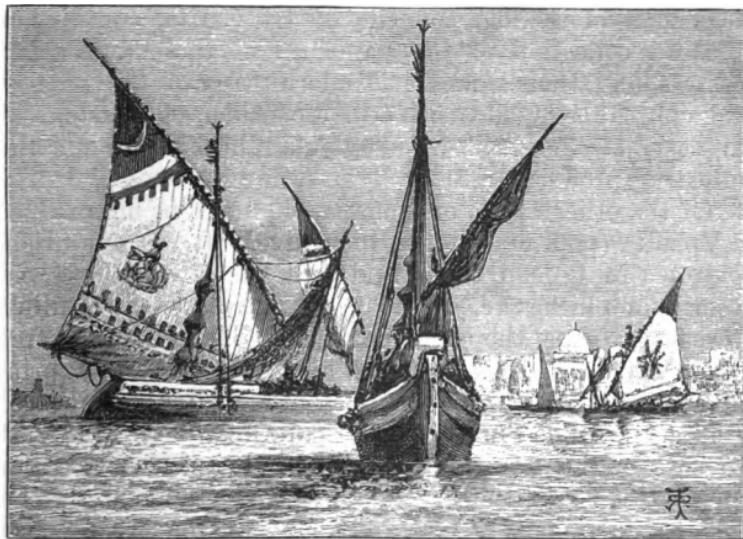


FIG. 3.—VENICE.

power, with possessions on the Italian mainland, in Istria and Dalmatia, in Greece, and among the Greek islands. In the eighteenth century it decayed, and in 1797 Napoleon made it over to Austria, to which it belonged until 1866, when it was annexed to the Italian kingdom. The greater part of Venice is built on the Rialto, an island pierced by many canals, the chief of which is the famous Grand Canal. Canals, over which gondolas are constantly passing to and fro, for the most part take the place of streets; but by crossing the bridges, and walking along narrow passages, one may go through most of the city on foot. From the

margins of some of the canals, and especially from that of the Grand Canal, rise stately palaces. The centre of Venice is St. Mark's Piazza or Square, the eastern side of which is occupied by the magnificent Byzantine church dedicated to St. Mark, the patron saint of Venice. Close to the Piazza is the Piazzetta, with the ancient ducal palace, from which the Bridge of Sighs leads to the state prison. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries Venice had a great school of painters, among whose members were Giovanni Bellini, Carpaccio, Giorgione, Titian, Tintoretto, and Paolo Veronese. The Academia, in the old convent of La Carità, contains a splendid collection of the paintings of these and other masters, and their works also adorn many of the palaces and churches. Venice has still a considerable trade, and its glass, jewellery, silks, and velvets rank high among the industrial products of Italy.

Of the other towns of Venetia, the next in importance is VERONA (pop. 60,768), on the Adige. It was a flourishing town in Roman times, and still has a well-preserved Roman amphitheatre. Among its natives were Catullus, Cornelius Nepos, the elder Pliny, and Vitruvius. A free city during a part of the middle ages, it became a principality, and was from the fifteenth century subject to Venice. On the same river is LEGNANO, where Frederick Barbarossa was defeated in a great battle in 1176. PADUA (pop. 47,334), on the Bacchiglione, was a famous Roman city, the birthplace of Livy. It has a university, to which many foreign scholars resorted during the middle ages and at the time of the Renascence. Farther up the river is VICENZA (pop. 27,674), with fine buildings by Palladio, who was born there.

VERONA, LEGNANO, PESCHIERA, and MANTUA are famous in military history as the Quadrilateral.

**18. Emilia.**—The province of *Emilia*, between the Po and the Apennines, is so called from the ancient military road *Via Æmiliana*, made by M. Æmilius Lepidus, Roman consul for the year 187 B.C., between *Ariminum* (Rimini) and *Placentia* (Piacenza). It takes in the territory once occupied by the duchies of Parma, Modena, and Romagna, the last of which was included in the dominions of the

papacy. PIACENZA (pop. 34,987), on the Po, lies in a fruitful valley. For the church of San Sixtus, Raphael painted the matchless Madonna Sixtina, now in the Dresden gallery. Piacenza derives military importance from the facts that the Po is easily crossed there, and that it forms the meeting-point for the road from France through Turin and the road from Switzerland through Milan. PARMA (pop. 44,492), on the river Parma, is famous in the history of art from its connection with Correggio. MODENA (pop. 31,053) represents the ancient *Mutina*, and is built on a canal connecting the rivers Secchia and Panaro. Between Modena and Parma is REGGIO, the birthplace of Ariosto; and to the south-west is the village CANOSSA, near which are the ruins of the castle in whose courtyard the Emperor Henry IV waited in a penitent's garb to be admitted to the presence of Pope Gregory VII. FERRARA (pop. 28,814), on the Po, was a city of great importance under the House of Este, to which Modena also was subject. There Tasso wrote his *Gerusalemme Liberata*, and Ariosto is buried in the church of San Benedetto. BOLOGNA (pop. 103,998), in a fertile valley between the rivers Reno and Savena, was originally an Etruscan city called *Felsina*. Under the name of *Bononia* it became an important Roman colony. During a part of the middle ages it was a flourishing republic, but it became subject to the papacy, in whose dominion it was next in importance to Rome. It has many old churches and palaces, in some of which are works by great masters; and there is a famous collection of paintings in the academy of fine arts. The university, which still takes high rank, celebrated in 1888 its eight hundredth anniversary. In the middle ages it was often attended by as many as 10,000 students at a time. Its teaching of jurisprudence was unsurpassed, and in its lecture-rooms the science of anatomy was first expounded. Of the industrial products of Bologna, its sausages are most widely known. FAENZA is celebrated for its majolica, which, having been first made there, is often called *fayence*. Four miles from the coast is RAVENNA, the seat of government under the later western Roman

emperors, King Odoacer, the east Gothic kings, and the Byzantine exarchs. It was then close to the sea, and its spacious harbour, Portus Classis, had been built by Augustus to serve as the Adriatic station of the Roman navy. Ravenna contains many monuments of its ancient greatness. The cathedral is a beautiful basilica built by Theodoric, the east Goth, about the year 500. In the church of San Francesco is Dante's tomb. RIMINI, on the Marecchia, was formerly on the coast, but is now a considerable distance from it, and is connected with the sea by a canal. Many of the inhabitants are engaged in fisheries. The town is famous for its Roman remains, the finest of which is a splendid marble bridge built over the river in the time of Augustus and Tiberius.

**19. The Marches.**—South-east of Emilia is the district called the *Marches*, bounded on the west by the Apennines, from which numerous offshoots advance towards the plain bordering the coast. The district receives its name from the fact that after the conquest of Ancona by the Longobardi it was the borderland of their kingdom, ruled by a margrave or marquess. It has no very large towns. The chief is ANCONA (pop. 31,277), a coast town of great antiquity, important as a military station and as a trading centre. Farther south is LORETO, made famous by the Santa Casa or Holy House, believed by some Catholics to have been the house of the Virgin in Nazareth. According to an old legend, it was miraculously translated in the thirteenth century to Fiume in Dalmatia, thence to Recanati, and finally to its present site, where it stands in a church built by Bramante on a hill commanding a beautiful view. The treasury is full of costly offerings brought by pilgrims, by many of whom the Santa Casa is still visited. Of the inland towns the most interesting is URBINO, the birthplace of Raphael, where he received his first lessons in painting from his father. It stands on the lofty ridge of a mountain which descends abruptly into the valleys of the Metauro and the Foglia. Here also Bramante was born.

**20. San Marino.**—On the borderland between the Marches and Emilia is a high rocky hill, on the upper slope

of which is built SAN MARINO, a city in no way subject to the Italian Government. It has a population of about 8000, and during all the changes which have affected Italy has never lost its independence. San Marino maintains a little army, and has its own republican institutions. Paths across a marsh lead down to a suburban village, from which, by means of a road to Rimini, the people communicate with the outer world.

21. **Tuscany.**—*Tuscany*, on the western side of the



FIG. 4.—FLORENCE.

Apennines, takes in the chief part of the territory held in ancient times by the Etruscans. In the middle ages it was broken up into a number of independent republics, among the chief of which were Florence, Pisa, Lucca, Arezzo, Siena, and Volterra.

FLORENCE (pop. 134,992), the chief city of Tuscany, existed in Roman times ; and in the eleventh century, under papal protection, it rose to a position of considerable importance. Afterwards it became one of the most illustrious of the Italian republics. In the fifteenth century

it became subject to the great family of the Medici, by whom, in the following century, it was made the capital of the grand duchy of Tuscany, which from 1765 was under the sway of Austria. From 1865 to 1871 Florence was the capital of the Italian kingdom. Encircled by hills, and bathed in a bright, sunny atmosphere, Florence is one of the most enchanting of Italian cities. It lies chiefly on the right bank of the Arno, which is crossed by four fine bridges. Among the most famous of its public buildings is the Duomo or cathedral, the splendid dome of which was the work of Brunelleschi. Near the cathedral are the beautiful campanile, built from designs by Giotto; and the baptistery of San Giovanni, adorned by the noble bronze gates of Ghiberti, called by Michael Angelo the Gates of Paradise. In the church of San Lorenzo are the magnificent monuments, by Michael Angelo, of Giuliano and Lorenzo de' Medici. The church of Santa Croce contains monuments of Dante, Michael Angelo, Machiavelli, Galileo, Alfieri, and other great Italians. Among the many fine secular buildings are the Uffizi and the Pitti palaces, in both of which are famous collections of works of art. Florence was the birthplace of Dante, and it is intimately associated with the names of most of the great Tuscan school of artists. It is an important centre of industry, some of the chief of its products being silk, jewellery, and mosaics.

Farther down the Arno, in a pleasant valley, is PISA (pop. 37,704), formerly a powerful republic, which contended with Genoa for supremacy on sea. It was at the height of its greatness in the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries ; and from this period date the noblest of the old buildings which have survived to our own time. It has a splendid cathedral, in which is the grave of the Emperor Henry VII ; and near it stands the famous marble belfry called the Leaning Tower of Pisa. The Campo Santo is an ancient cemetery, for which earth was brought by a Pisan fleet from Jerusalem in 1228. Around it are cloisters adorned with beautiful frescoes by great masters. The university was famous in the middle ages, and is still well attended. North of Pisa is LUCCA (pop.

20,421), with the remains of a Roman amphitheatre and several early basilicas. LEGHORN (pop. 78,998), on the coast, is an uninteresting but prosperous trading town. On the plateau of Tuscany are VOLTERRA, an ancient Etruscan town, the home of Persius; and SIENA (pop. 23,445), with a cathedral which is considered the best Gothic building in Italy. St. Catharine of Siena was born in this city in 1347. Siena has a university, and its school of painters has an important place in the history of Italian art. AREZZO represents the ancient Aretium. It is pleasantly situated near the Arno, and has been the birth-place of many famous men, including Maecenas, Petrarch, Pietro Aretino, and Vasari. Michael Angelo was born at CASTEL CAPRESE, in the diocese of Arezzo.

Opposite the Tuscan coast are several small Italian islands, the chief of which is ELBA, where Napoleon was for some time detained as a prisoner. Its iron mines are valuable. It also produces salt, and has tunny fisheries. PORTO FERRAJO, in the north, is its principal town.

**22. Umbria.**—Between Tuscany and the Marches lies the hilly district called *Umbria*. Its chief city is PERUGIA, built on a hill on the right bank of the Tiber. It was the centre of the Umbrian school of painting, to which Raphael belonged; and some of its churches contain fine works of art. To the east, on the slope of a hill, is ASSISI, the home of St. Francis; and to the north, on a beautiful site, with the Apennines in the background, lies GUBBIO, near which, among the ruins of a temple of Jupiter Apenninus, were found in 1444 the famous Eugubine Tables, seven bronze tablets, the inscriptions on which throw light on the affinities of the ancient Umbrian language. NARNI is an interesting town on a height rising out of the valley of the Nera, and crowned by an old castle. TERNI, also on the Nera, represents the ancient Interamna, the home of Tacitus. A narrow valley on the right bank of the Nera leads up to SPOLETO, formerly the capital of a Lombard duchy.

**23. Roma.**—The district taken from the papacy in 1870 and added to the Italian kingdom is called *Roma*. It stretches from the Lower Tiber to Tuscany in the north-

west, and to Campania in the south-east. In the centre of the district, on the Tiber, is Rome (pop. 273,268), the most famous city in the world, and the one which has most deeply influenced the progress of mankind. The original Rome was built on the Palatine hill. This was united with a Sabine settlement on the Quirinal hill, and afterwards the city took in settlements on five other hills—the Capitoline, the Caelian, the Aventine, the Esquiline, and the Viminal; so that Rome became, as it was often called, the City of the Seven Hills. Around this city, which was entirely on the left bank of the Tiber, was a wall, which was supposed to have been built by King Servius Tullius. As the Roman dominion extended, Rome itself became more and more populous; and in 271 A.D. the Emperor Aurelian began the building of a new wall, which, when completed, was eleven miles in circumference. This took in the Pincian hill and Campus Martius on the left bank of the Tiber, and a part of the Janiculan hill on the right bank. The Vatican hill, on the right bank, was not included, but buildings were erected on it. Within the walls were open spaces, some of which, called *fora*, were paved and used as market-places; while others, called *campi*, were grass-grown, adorned with trees and works of art, and used for exercises and amusements. Around these spaces were the buildings of the city, grouped in streets. When at the height of its splendour, Rome had about 400 temples, the most magnificent of which was the Capitolium on the Capitoline hill. There were also amphitheatres, basilicas, public baths, triumphal arches, lofty obelisks, great aqueducts and sewers, and vast palaces.

After the fall of the western empire Rome was often plundered, and it wholly lost its secular greatness. But under the papacy it entered upon a second period of supremacy, in some ways even more important than the first, for during the middle ages the peoples of the West looked to Rome as their ruler and guide in all matters relating to the spiritual world. The tendency of feudalism was to break up Europe into small, mutually hostile communities. To some extent this tendency was counteracted by the influence of Rome, which kept alive the feeling that

men had great common interests, and were subject to a law higher than the irregular impulses of the individual will.

In the fourteenth century the popes lived for seventy years at Avignon ; and at the end of this so-called Babylonian captivity it was found that Rome, in comparison with its former prosperity, had become almost a wilderness. Great changes were soon begun, and it is from about the middle of the fifteenth century that the rise of the city as it now exists must be dated.

The wall of Aurelian still stands, and has been extended to include the Vatican ; but only about a half of the space enclosed by it is occupied by modern Rome. The other half, in which there are many ruins, is chiefly laid out in gardens and vineyards.

On the right bank of the Tiber is St. Peter's, the central church of Roman Catholic Christendom. This church, which occupies the site of an ancient basilica, is the largest in the world. Its foundation was laid in 1506, and its vast and splendid dome was designed by Michael Angelo. Near St. Peter's is the Vatican, the palace of the pope, famous for its library, its collections of ancient and modern works of art, its frescoes by Raphael and his disciples, and the unmatched paintings with which Michael Angelo adorned the Sixtine chapel. Also on the right bank is the castle of St. Angelo, built by the Emperor Hadrian as a tomb for the emperors, but transformed into the citadel of Rome by popes Alexander VI and Urban VIII.

The greater part of the city is built on the left bank, and the most populous district occupies the ancient Campus Martius, between the Capitoline and the Quirinal hills. Through this district passes the Corso, the chief street of modern Rome. It leads to the Capitol, on which is the Piazza di Campidoglio, formed by three great palaces planned by Michael Angelo. In one of these palaces is the Capitoline Museum, a splendid collection of ancient sculpture. In the centre of the piazza stands a fine ancient equestrian statue of Marcus Aurelius. Near the Capitol is the old Roman Forum, and in the same neighbourhood are the arch of Titus, the arch of Constantine, and the

Colosseum, the vast amphitheatre of Vespasian, the most famous of surviving Roman antiquities. Among other antiquities are the Pantheon, an ancient Pagan temple, now used as a church ; the nobly decorated pillar erected to commemorate the victories of Trajan ; and the ruins of the baths of Diocletian. In the catacombs are many profoundly interesting relics of the early Roman Christians,



FIG. 5.—THE FORUM.

who found in these subterranean galleries a refuge from their persecutors. Rome has more than 300 churches, the most beautiful of which are the old basilicas. One of them, San Giovanni in Laterano, is the special episcopal church of the pope, of which he formally takes possession when he enters upon the papal office. Connected with it is the Lateran palace, occupied by the popes before their residence in Avignon. The Quirinal is the palace of the King of Italy.

Outside the Porta del Popolo, by which Rome is entered from the north, there is a small suburban district ; but

elsewhere the immediate neighbourhood of Rome is generally bare and desolate. During the hotter seasons of the year the Campagna is a vast solitude, but in the autumn it affords here and there pasturage for sheep and cattle. It seems to have been always an unhealthy district, but in ancient times it was carefully cultivated, and it still has many remains of ancient buildings.

On the Roman coast is CIVITÀ VECCHIA, a strongly fortified town, and an important station for mercantile vessels. On the Teverone is TIVOLI, the ancient *Tibur*, now, as in old times, a favourite resort of the Romans in summer. FRASCATI is near the site of *Tusculum*, where Cicero, like many other rich citizens of ancient Rome, had a villa.

**24. Campania.**—In the southern part of the peninsula are the districts which were included in the kingdom of Naples. The most fertile of them is *Campania*, watered by the rivers Garigliano, Volturno, and Sele. In the centre of the Campanian coast is the beautiful **Bay of Naples**, which is about twenty miles wide from Cape Miseno on the north-west to Cape Campanella in the south-east. Opposite Cape Miseno are the islands of **Procida** and **Ischia**; the former famous for the coral fisheries carried on by its inhabitants; the latter, which is of volcanic origin, for its wine and figs. The island of **Capri**, from which the Emperor Tiberius for many years ruled the Roman world, lies opposite Cape Campanella. In the north-east corner of the Bay of Naples is the city of **NAPLES** (pop. 463,172), which rises in the form of an amphitheatre from the coast towards hills, on which a part of it is built. It commands a superb view of the bay, and of the great volcanic mountain, Vesuvius, from the crater of which there are still occasional outbursts of volcanic energy. The city itself is not quite worthy of its grand surroundings, the older part of it consisting of narrow, overcrowded streets, without much picturesque charm. In the more modern part, however, there are some fine buildings; and the museum contains great collections of works of art. The university is one of the finest institutions of the city. Naples is the chief trading station of the Mediterranean,

and has some manufactures. The coral fisheries give occupation to a considerable number of the inhabitants. On the south-east side of the bay, in a beautiful ravine, producing in abundance citrons, oranges, and other southern fruits, is SORRENTO, the birthplace of Tasso. On the eastern shore lie the ruins of *Pompeii* and *Herculaneum*, two ancient cities buried under lava and ashes by an outbreak

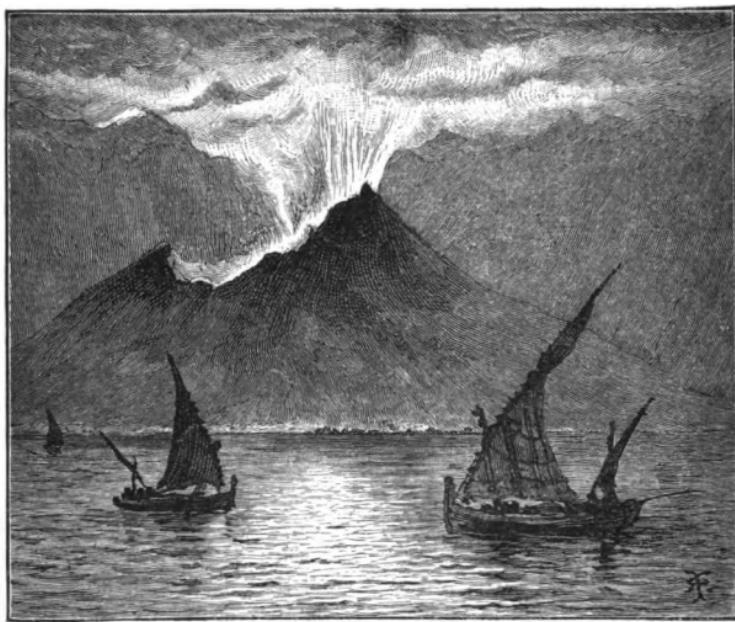


FIG. 6.—VESUVIUS.

of Vesuvius in 79 A.D. They have been partly excavated, and the remains have thrown much light upon the social life of the ancient world.

GAËTA, a strongly fortified station, is one of several trading towns on the coast of the Gulf of Gaëta. On the Gulf of Salerno is SALERNO, overlooked by an old ducal castle of Robert Guiscard. At *Pæstum*, where there was formerly a Greek city, are two magnificent Greek temples in the Doric style—the finest monuments of antiquity that survive in Italy.

Among the inland towns of Campania are ARPINO, near the site of the ancient Arpinum, the birthplace of Marius and Cicero ; AQUINO, the birthplace of Juvenal and of St. Thomas, the greatest of the scholastic philosophers ; SAN GERMANO, near which, on a height, is the abbey of Monte Casino, founded by St. Benedict in 528 ; CAPUA, near the site of the ancient city of the same name ; BENEVENTO, formerly the seat of a Lombard duchy ; and AVERSA, the first settlement of the Normans in southern Italy.

**25. The Abruzzi and Molise.**—The *Abruzzi* and *Molise* are a mountainous district, with many small towns in high valleys. Among these towns is AQUILA, picturesquely situated on the Alterno, at the meeting-point of several Passes of the Apennines ; SULMONA, the ancient *Sulmo*, the birthplace of Ovid ; TORRE D'AMITERNO, representing AMITERNUM, the birthplace of Sallust ; and CHIETI, a trading town a few miles from the coast.

**26. Apulia.**—*Apulia* includes three provinces. The chief town in *Capitanata*, the most northerly of these provinces, is FOGGIA (pop. 36,852), with an important inland trade. MANFREDONIA, on the gulf of the same name, was founded from the ruins of the ancient *Sipontum* by Manfred, king of Naples and Sicily, one of the most popular of Italian mediæval heroes. In the province of *Bari* there are several important coast towns, most of which are fortified —BARLETTA, near which are salt springs ; BISCEGLIA, with saltpetre mines ; and BARI, with a good harbour and a considerable trade in wine and oil. Inland is CANOSA, the ancient *Canusium*, where the Roman army took refuge after the battle of Cannæ. A large part of the province of *Otranto* is covered with olive groves. BRINDISI, on the coast, represents the ancient *Brindisium*, a great naval station in the time of the Greek colonies. It has an excellent harbour, and is well known from its position in the overland route from England to India. GILLIPOLI, on the Gulf of Taranto, carries on a trade in wool, wine, and oil. TARANTO, farther up the gulf, was in ancient times the most flourishing of the Greek colonies in southern Italy. It was famous for its purple dyes, and the inhabitants were often accused of an excessive indulgence in luxury. In the

modern town, built on an island between two channels, there are many gardens with southern fruit-trees ; and it has extensive fisheries, with a trade in wool and gloves.

**27. Basilicata.**—*Basilicata*, between Campania and Apulia, has no important coast towns. In the north are MELFI, an old Norman town, overlooked by a castle built by Robert Guiscard ; and VENOSA, representing the ancient *Venusia*, the birthplace of Horace. In this mountainous province there are many wild and beautiful landscapes. It produces much wine and liquorice.

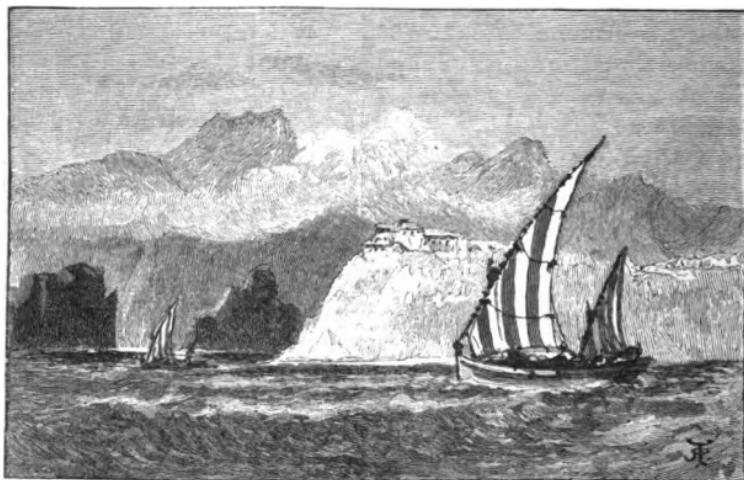


FIG. 7.—SCYLLA AND CHARYBDIS.

**28. Calabria.**—*Calabria* is so mountainous that much of it can be reached only with difficulty, and it has always been a favourite haunt of brigands. In its warm, sometimes almost tropical climate, the olive and the vine flourish. In all its larger towns there are manufactures of silk and a vigorous trade in oil. On the coast is COTRONE, representing the ancient Greek *Croton*, the home of Pythagoras. At the extremity of the peninsula is REGGIO, the neighbourhood of which produces an enormous quantity of oranges, citrons, figs, and pomegranates. To the north-east of Reggio is SCYLLA, built in a wild ravine opening to the sea. The town climbs up two sides of the famous rock of Scylla.

On the opposite side of the narrow strait of Messina is the equally famous whirlpool or eddy of **Charybdis**.

**29. Sicily.**—The island of Sicily, parted from Italy by the strait of Messina, has an area of nearly 10,000 square miles. It has the shape of a rough triangle, the base of which is the eastern side, reaching from Cape di Faro to Cape Passaro, a distance of 145 miles. The length of the south-western side, ending at Cape Boco, is 190 miles; that of the northern side 215 miles.

The Apennines are continued in Sicily by a range which in the north is more or less parallel with the northern coast. This range has no common name. It includes, in the east, the **Peloric** chain, beyond which, towards the west, are the **Nebrodian** and the **Madonian** hills. A depression separates the latter from various irregular chains and isolated hills in the extreme west. Near the centre of this northern range, on the eastern side of the Madonian hills, the subordinate chain of **Marti Sori** breaks away towards the south-east. This central district forms the chief water-parting of Sicily, the river **Giaretta** flowing towards the east, the **Salso** towards the south, and the **Platani** towards the south-west.

Various parts of the coast are steep, but with good harbours. Elsewhere the coast is bordered by wide and fertile plains, from one of which—that of Catania—rises **Mount Etna**, the loftiest volcanic mountain in Europe. From its broad base, nearly ninety miles in circumference, Etna reaches a height of 10,840 feet. Around the base there is a zone of cultivated land, above which is a region covered with forests. The summit, containing the wide central crater, is bare and desolate, and much of it is under perpetual snow.

Lying in the centre of the Mediterranean, close to Italy, and not far from Africa, Sicily has an admirable position for the development of commerce, and this is one reason why, from a very early period, it has so often been an object of contention between different powers. From the eighth to the sixth century B.C. the Greeks built many cities in the island, chiefly on the coasts, while the Phoenicians had important settlements in the north-west. In the

third century B.C. Sicily became a province of the Romans, by whom it was held until the fall of the western empire. Afterwards the island was ruled by the Byzantine emperors, by the Saracens, by Norman kings, and by kings of the House of Hohenstaufen. In 1282, by the massacre known as the Sicilian Vespers, the people liberated themselves from the tyranny of the Angevins, who had displaced the Hohenstaufen dynasty; and from this time, in one way or another, Sicily was generally under rulers of Spanish origin, until in 1860 it became a part of the Italian kingdom.

The estimated population is 3,192,108. The majority of the people are engaged in agriculture, which is carried on with much success in the valleys, especially along the coasts. The wheat of Sicily has long been famous. In addition to the vine, the olive, figs, oranges, and other plants and fruits common in Italy, the island produces the cotton plant, the sugar-cane, the date-palm, the cactus, and the aloe. Hilly districts in the interior are given up chiefly to the pasturage of sheep and goats.

Sulphur mines are a source of considerable wealth, and there are extensive fisheries for tunnies, sardines, oysters, and corals. Silk, cotton, and leather are manufactured; but these industries are not very important. The chief articles of export are wheat and sulphur.

The principal city is PALERMO (pop. 205,712), in the western part of the northern coast. It looks out on a fine bay, which has on the north-west the rugged Monte Pellegrino, on the south-east the rocky Cape Zafferano. From this bay a lovely valley—so fertile that it is called the “conca d’oro,” the golden shell—spreads out towards limestone hills that enclose it in a semicircle. This beautiful city was called in ancient times *Panormos*, and belonged originally to the Phoenicians. In the time of the Saracens and of the Norman, Hohenstaufen, and Aragonese kings, Palermo was the capital of Sicily. It is a great trading station, and has some manufacturing industries. Among its public institutions are a university and a museum of art and antiquities. In the cathedral are the tombs of King Roger, the founder of the Norman monarchy in Sicily, and of the brilliant Emperor Frederick II.

A little to the south of Cape di Faro, on a splendid natural harbour, lies MESSINA (pop. 78,438), representing the ancient *Messana*, the name given by Messenian colonists to a city which had been called, up to the time of their arrival, *Zancle*. It is a place of the highest strategical importance. Its university is well known, and it has valuable silk manufactures.

The most populous city on the eastern coast is CATANIA (pop. 96,017), the chief of a number of towns grouped at the foot of Mount Etna, where the soil has been enriched by many a stream of lava. To the north of Catania is TAORMINA, with the remains of a Roman theatre ; and to the south SYRACUSE, on the island Ortygia, connected by bridges and embankments with the mainland, where there are remains of the original Syracuse, one of the foremost of ancient Greek cities.

Among the cities on the south-western coast is ALICATA, at the mouth of the Salso, with a considerable trade. GIRGENTI, a little way from the coast, represents the Greek *Acragas*, called by the Romans *Agrumentum*. In the neighbourhood are great sulphur mines. At TERRA DEI PULCI are the ruins of *Selinus*, including some of the finest specimens of ancient Greek architecture.

On the small strip of coast in the west are MARSALA, famous for its wines, and TRAPANI (pop. 32,020), with tunny and coral fisheries.

Near the coast of the Gulf of Castellamare is ALCAMO (pop. 37,697), in the neighbourhood of which is a well preserved Doric temple, a monument of the ancient *Segesta*.

Among the inland towns is CASTRO GIOVANNI, near the sources of the Giaretta and the Salso. It stands high, and commands a splendid view of many hills and valleys. It represents the ancient *Enna*, famous from its connection with the old Greek tale of Persephone. To the west of the Salso is CALTANISSETTA (pop. 25,027), in the midst of a district with sulphur mines. To the east of the same river are the important trading towns RAGUSA (pop. 24,183) and MODICA (pop. 38,390).

**30. The Lipari Islands.**—A little to the north of Sicily are seven small islands, called, from the largest member of

the group, the *Lipari* islands. They are of volcanic origin. *Stromboli* has a cone rising to 3090 feet, and the volcano is still active. In *Vulcano* also there are occasional volcanic outbursts. From *Lipari*, which consists of lava and scoriæ, great quantities of pumice-stone are exported.

**31. Sardinia.**—Geographically, the islands of *Corsica* and *Sardinia* belong to Italy, but only one of them, *Sardinia*, is subject to the Italian Crown. They are very mountainous, but while *Corsica* has a regular mountain system, the mountains of *Sardinia* are broken up into groups, with many deep ravines. *Monte Genargentu*, 6116 feet high, is the loftiest point in *Sardinia*. There are many short and rapid streams. The coast is generally rugged, and has few good harbours.

In various parts of *Sardinia* there are great prehistoric buildings called *Nuraghi*, which, strangely enough, are not found in *Corsica*. They are round towers sloping from the base upwards, and stand on heights commanding distant views.

The island was held in succession by the Phoenicians, the Carthaginians, and the Romans. Like *Sicily*, it was snatched from the Byzantine empire by the Saracens, who were in turn driven out by the Pisans. In the thirteenth century it became subject to Aragon, and it continued under Spanish rule until 1708, when it was taken by the English. The House of Hapsburg, which received it in 1713, gave it in 1720 to the Duke of Savoy in exchange for *Sicily*.

The population is 723,833. The physical type of the people seems to indicate that they are chiefly of Iberian and Arabian descent. The vocabulary of their language is a mixture of Italian and Spanish, with some Arabic words.

*Sardinia* has great mineral wealth, and, in the neighbourhood of *IGLESIAS*, mines which were worked in the time of the Romans still produce large quantities of lead and zinc. In the district of *LANUSEI* there are silver mines. The coral and other fisheries are valuable, but agriculture is in a very backward state.

The principal city is *CAGLIARI* (pop. 35,588), on a gulf

of the same name, in the south. The trade is considerable, and in the city are the ruins of a Roman amphitheatre, a museum of Phoenician antiquities, and a university. SASSARI (pop. 31,596), near the northern coast, has also a university. It lies in a beautiful district covered with olive plantations.

Off the north-eastern coast is the small island of *Caprera*, famous as the home of Garibaldi.

**32. Malta.**—Between Sicily and the African coast lie the *Maltese Islands*, which belong to Great Britain. They have an area of 117 square miles. The largest of them is **Malta**, to the north-west of which lies **Gozo**. Between these two islands is the smaller island of Comino. They consist of limestone, and have various ranges of low hills, with pleasant valleys.

At a very early time the Maltese islands were colonised by the Phoenicians, and afterwards they were held by the Greeks and by the Carthaginians. They came into the possession of Rome in the third century B.C. In the ninth century of our era they were taken from the Byzantine Empire by the Saracens, who, in the eleventh century, were expelled by the Normans. Various changes led to their being subject to Spain, and in 1530 they were given by Charles V to the Knights of the Order of St. John, who distinguished themselves by the energy with which they fought with the Turks and chastised the Barbary pirates. The Order having become disorganised, the islands were taken by Napoleon in 1798, but in 1800 they were occupied by the English, by whom they have since been held. Lying on the principal route to India, possessing at Valetta a magnificent harbour, and having been made impregnable by fortifications, Malta is considered one of the most precious possessions of the British Crown.

In 1887 the group had a population of 160,679. The varied history of the people has left its mark on their speech, the vocabulary of which is a strange mixture of Arabic, Italian, Greek, and other languages. The educated classes, however, speak Italian. The islands are ruled by a British Governor, aided by an executive council and a

council of government. The natives belong to the Roman Church. The land is owned chiefly by peasants, by whom it is industriously cultivated. It consists only of a thin layer of soil, but is remarkably fertile, and produces, besides grain, the cotton-plant, the sugar-cane, olives and aloes. The oranges of Malta are the finest in Europe.

The capital is VALETTA (pop. 65,000), on the north-eastern coast of Malta. It is built on a long, narrow

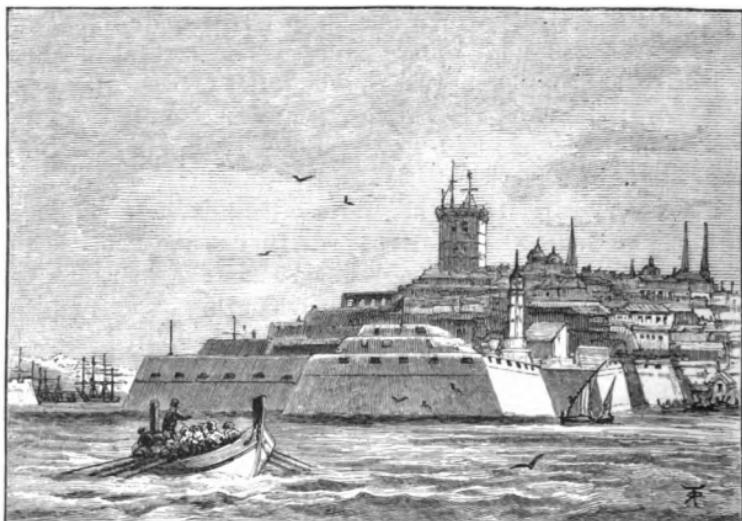


FIG. 8.—VALETTA, MALTA.

ridge, with a harbour on either side. One of these harbours—that on the south-eastern side—is deep and spacious, and admits the largest war-vessels. The town is strongly fortified, and has many fine buildings, including the cathedral of the Order of St. John. It is the centre of Maltese commerce, and has a university and numerous public schools. West of Valletta is the PORTO DE SAN PAOLO, where St. Paul is supposed to have been shipwrecked. CITTÀ VECCHIA is a beautiful old town, with a cathedral, in the interior. It was formerly the capital, and is still called by the natives by its ancient Arabic name, *Medina*.

The chief place in Gozo is the inland town RABATO.

## CHAPTER IV

### THE IBERIAN PENINSULA

1. The Iberian peninsula is so called because of its earliest known inhabitants, the Iberians. The Romans generally called it *Hispania*; whence Spain, a name now usually applied only to one of the two kingdoms between which it is divided. “*Hispania*” is perhaps derived from a Phoenician word “*Sapan*” or “*Span*,” indicating that there was in the country an abundance of martens, or, it may be, rabbits.

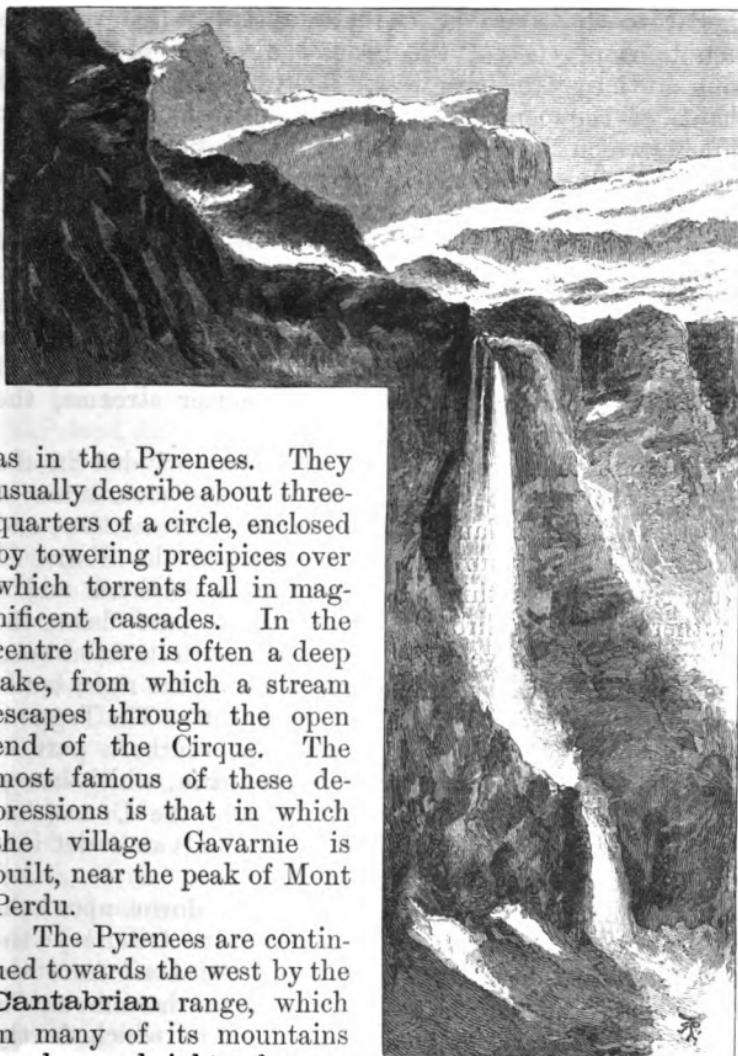
2. **Boundaries.**—The peninsula has the general form of a trapezium, and the central mass consists of table-lands, crossed by various more or less parallel ranges of mountains. The coast is washed in the north-west by the Bay of Biscay, on the west and south-west by the Atlantic, on the south-east and east by the Mediterranean. In the north-east the peninsula is separated from France by the Pyrenees. The Pyrenees are parted from the French highlands, and therefore from the general Alpine system, by an area of depression; and as they are intimately connected with the mountains of Spain, they are properly regarded as a distinctively Spanish range.

3. **The Coast.**—The northern coast, and the northern part of the west coast, are generally wild and rocky. In the north-western corner are the bold headlands of Cape Ortegal and Cape Finisterre, in the neighbourhood of both of which there are deep fiords, called “Rias” by the Spaniards. A strip of low land lies along the greater part of the western coast; but south of the estuary of the Tagus there are chalk cliffs, ending in Cape Espichel; and Cape

St. Vincent is the extreme south-westerly point of a line of high seaboard. In the south are the cliffs of Cape Trafalgar, and the rock of Gibraltar, beyond which, to Cape de Gata, a lofty seaboard alternates with level tracts. In the south-east there are numerous headlands, including Cape de Palos—near which a narrow spit of land shuts off the lagoon called Mar Menor—and Cape de la Nao. Past the stormy Bay of Valencia, with its generally flat shores, the coast is varied as far as the delta of the **Ebro**, where there is a margin of low ground. As we approach the eastern extremity of the Pyrenees, we come to a more rugged coast, with several high promontories, the most remarkable of which are Cape St. Sebastian and Cape Creus, enclosing the Gulf of Rosas.

**4. Physical Features.**—The north-eastern limit, from the Mediterranean to the Bay of Biscay, is about 250 miles long, and is crossed from sea to sea by the Pyrenees. This range is less lofty than the Alps, and more regular in formation; but in some parts it is hardly, if at all, inferior to the higher range in wild grandeur. It has but two passes accessible to carriages; elsewhere it can be crossed only by a few bridle-paths or foot-paths. The loftiest points of the range are in the central Pyrenees, which stretch from the sources of the Garonne to the Gave d'Aspe, a little beyond the Pic du Midi. Near the eastern extremity of this part of the range is the group of **Maladetta**, corresponding among the mountains of the Pyrenees to the group of Mont Blanc among the mountains of the Alps. Maladetta includes several lofty peaks, in the highest of which, the Peak of **Nethou** (11,168 feet), the Pyrenees culminate. These peaks overlook great glaciers, which, however, are not so long, broad, and deep as those of the loftiest Alpine regions. Among many other summits of the central Pyrenees is the magnificent peak of **Mont Perdu**, 11,030 feet high. The **Garonne** is the only important river which rises in the Pyrenees, but innumerable "Gaves" or small mountain streams rush down steep and narrow gorges. Many of the higher valleys begin in vast depressions called **Cirques**, caldron-like formations which

occur in other ranges, but nowhere on so grand a scale



as in the Pyrenees. They usually describe about three-quarters of a circle, enclosed by towering precipices over which torrents fall in magnificent cascades. In the centre there is often a deep lake, from which a stream escapes through the open end of the Cirque. The most famous of these depressions is that in which the village Gavarnie is built, near the peak of Mont Perdu.

The Pyrenees are continued towards the west by the Cantabrian range, which in many of its mountains reaches a height of more than 8000 feet. At its western end this range is broken up into the highlands of *Galicia*, through which flows the **Minho**, with its tributary the *Sil*. The Cantabrian range is also connected

FIG. 9.—GAVARNIE FALLS.

with the high terraces of *Traz os Montes* and the wooded heights of the western part of *Leon*.

Far to the south of the Cantabrian range rise the mountains of *Castile*, the general direction of which is from north-east to south-west. They are the great central chains of the peninsula, and include various sierras or ridges, which have a mean height of 8500 feet—the Sierra de Guadarrama, the Sierra de Gredos, the Sierra de Gata, and the Sierra da Estrella. Between the Cantabrian range and the Castilian mountains is the table-land of *Old Castile*, *Leon*, and *Beira*. This table-land is crossed from north-east to south-west by the river *Douro*, which rises from two springs among the hills of Soria, and receives from the Cantabrian range the *Pisuerga* and the *Esla*, and from the Castilian mountains the shorter streams, the *Tormes*, the *Agueda*, and the *Coa*.

To the south are the various chains included in the **Sierra Morena**, between which and the mountains of Castile is the table-land of *New Castile*, *Estremadura*, and *Alemejo*. The mountains of Toledo and the Sierra de Guadalupe divide this table-land into a northern and a southern part. Through the northern part flows the **Tagus**, the chief river of the peninsula, with its tributaries the *Jarama*, the *Alagon*, and the *Zezere* on the right bank, and the *Guadiela* and the *Zatas* on the left. The Tagus is roughly parallel with the Douro. The southern part of the table-land is drained by the **Guadiana**, which has at first the same direction as the Tagus and the Douro, but at Badajoz turns towards the south and finds an outlet into the Atlantic on the southern coast.

From the Sierra Morena one looks down upon the valley of the **Guadalquivir**, with its tributary the *Guadalimar* from the north-east and the *Jenil* from the south-east. Beyond the valley rises the southern mountain system of *Andalusia*, the chief range in which is the **Sierra Nevada**, so called because its loftiest heights are always covered with snow. Its highest point is the **Mulhaçen** peak (11,660 feet), which reaches an elevation above that of any European mountain not included in the Alpine ranges. Beneath the summit of Mulhaçen, in the

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**Corral de Veleta**, is the most southerly glacier in Europe. The mountains of Andalusia advance close to the coast, and some of them rise sheer out of the sea, presenting a splendid spectacle as regards both form and colour.

A part of the southern and south-eastern coast is a region of steppes, varied by occasional tracts of fertile land. Behind the coast of *Valencia* rise groups of hills, called the **Iberian highlands**, varying in height from 2000 to 5000 feet. These hills form the eastern border of the central table-lands. On one of them, the **Muela de San Juan**, the *Tagus* rises; and on the same hill are the sources of various rivers which flow in the opposite direction, towards the Mediterranean—the **Jucar**, with its tributary the **Gabriel**, and the **Guadalaviar**.

Immediately to the south of the Pyrenees are great highland districts, between which and the northern table-land flows the *Ebro*, the chief river of north-eastern Spain. It rises in the Cantabrian range, and flows in a south-easterly direction to the Mediterranean, receiving on the left bank the *Aragon*, the *Gallego*, and the *Segre*; on the right the *Jalon* and the *Guadalupe*. Before reaching the sea, the *Ebro* cuts its way through a part of the Catalonian highlands. Two smaller independent rivers, flowing through Catalonia from the Pyrenees to the Mediterranean, are the **Lobregat** and the **Ter**. In the neighbourhood of the *Ter* is a group of extinct volcanoes, the last of a series passing along the Mediterranean coast from Cape de Gata.

**5. Climate.**—The climate varies greatly in different parts of the peninsula. In the high table-lands there is fierce heat in summer and bitter cold in winter. Little rain falls in these regions, because the vapour from the Mediterranean and the Atlantic is condensed in the cool atmosphere of the mountains and hills near the coast. Hence there are many barren districts, while in others there is little vegetation except esparto grass. In the northern, north-western, and western regions there is ample rain, and the climate is mild and the soil fertile. In the valley of the *Guadalquivir* the heat in summer is excessive, but the weather in winter is like that of the most genial periods of

a northern spring. Along the southern and south-eastern coast, which closely resembles many northern parts of Africa, the climate is almost tropical, and various regions produce the cotton-plant, the sugar-cane, the cactus, and the palm. Along the eastern and north-eastern coast the climate is more temperate, but in the valleys of Catalonia it is warm enough to favour the growth of the cactus and the aloe. Much of the central valley of the Ebro, on the contrary, being shut out by mountains from the rains of the coast, is like the arid table-land beyond the outer limit of which the river flows.

**6. History.**—The **Iberians**, the primitive inhabitants of the peninsula, belonged to the race which, as we have seen, appears to have occupied in early times the Mediterranean coast-lands and the Atlantic seaboard. At some unknown period the greater part of the country was conquered by **Keltic** tribes, and their union with the natives led to the growth of a mixed population, the **Keltiberians**. Among the mountains of the western Pyrenees a group of Iberians kept their independence, and there their descendants still exist, speaking the old Iberian language. They call themselves **Euscaldunac**, and their land **Euscalearia**, but they are generally known by the name of the **Basques**.

At a very early time the Phœnicians traded with the people, and founded colonies on the coast. They were followed by the Greeks, who, however, did not make settlements beyond the Pillars of Hercules, as they called the rocks on the opposite shores of the strait of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians established on the Atlantic coast several stations, the chief of which was Gades, now Cadiz.

In the third century B.C. more than a half of the peninsula was conquered by the Carthaginians. They were displaced by the Romans, who, after a long struggle, subdued the entire land. It flourished under the rule of Rome, and seems to have supported a much larger population than that which it has maintained in modern times. In the fifth century of our era the Roman power came to an end, and the peninsula was overrun by Teutonic tribes, one of whom, the **Vandals**, finally crossed over to Africa,

leaving in Spain a trace of their presence in the name of the southern province, *Andalusia*. The **Suevi** settled in the north-western part of Spain, while the west **Goths** formed a powerful kingdom, taking in most of the peninsula and a wide district in southern Gaul.

The west Gothic kingdom was overthrown in the eighth century by the **Saracens**, who had swept across northern Africa, forcing the peoples whom they conquered to accept the Mohammedan faith. The peninsula was formed into an independent caliphate, which was at the height of its power in the tenth century, the seat of government being at CORDOVA. In the eleventh century the caliphate fell asunder, and its place was taken by a number of small Moslem kingdoms, including those of Cordova, Seville, Valencia, Toledo, Zaragoza, and Lisbon. These kingdoms would probably soon have been destroyed, but the Mohammedan power was renewed and strengthened by successive **Moorish** invasions. The Moors were not mainly of Arabic blood, but they spoke the Arabic language, and their civilisation was the same as that of the original Saracenic conquerors.

The Saracens of the Iberian peninsula were in many ways highly civilised. They tilled the soil diligently; they built splendid mosques and palaces; and they produced many thinkers and scholars who devoted themselves to the study of science and philosophy. Innumerable Arabic place-names keep alive the memory of their rule. Tarifa is the cape on which a Saracenic invader, Tarif-Abū-Zar'ah, landed. The name Gibraltar is a corruption of Gebel-al-Tarik, the mountain of Tarik, another Saracenic invader. The names of many places, such as Alicant, Alcala, Almeida, begin with "al," the Arabic definite article; and "Guad," the Arabic word for river, forms the first part of a large number of river names. Trafalgar means the promontory of the cave, Alcacova the fortress, Almanza the plain, Almazar the mill; and so on.

Having conquered the greater part of the peninsula, the Saracens tried to subdue the territory of the Franks, north of the Pyrenees; but in this attempt they were

foiled. In 774 Charles the Great, King of the Franks, advanced against them, and seized the north-eastern district between the Pyrenees and the Ebro. This region was called the *Spanish March*, and for some centuries the county of *Barcelona* and other lands in the eastern part of the March remained subject first to the Frankish, then to the French kings. The people of *Navarre*, *Aragon*, and other districts, however, soon became independent, and in the neighbourhood of the Ebro the Saracens won back much of the land they had lost.

Meanwhile, various independent Christian kingdoms were formed, which fought steadily against the Mohammedans. For some time the most important of them was *Navarre*, which had lands on both sides of the Pyrenees ; but afterwards the chief Christian kingdoms of Spain were **Aragon** in the east, **Castile** in the centre, and **Portugal** in the west. Aragon and Castile were both subject to Sancho the Great, King of Navarre, but on his death in 1035 they became kingdoms. At first Aragon occupied only the northern part of the province which now bears its name, but it gradually extended its borders by the conquest of Saracen lands in the south and by the absorption of French fiefs in the east. In 1131 it was united with the county of *Barcelona*, and thus not only reached the sea but obtained possession of *Roussillon* and other provinces north of the Pyrenees. In the following century it annexed the kingdom of *Valencia* ; and afterwards it became one of the great powers of Europe by securing the *Balearic Isles*, *Sardinia*, and the two *Sicilies*.

Castile was originally a county of the kingdom of **Leon**, which grew out of the kingdom of *Asturias*, the earliest of the Christian states which offered resistance to the Saracens. When Castile became a kingdom it was several times temporarily, and afterwards permanently, united with Leon, and so obtained possession of the whole of north-western Spain. It also pushed its way to the south, and conquered *Toledo* in 1085. In 1094 Alfonso VI of Castile granted as a fief to Henry, a Burgundian noble, the small county of **Portugal**, between the *Minho* and the *Douro*. This county became a

kingdom in 1139, and in 1147 the new kingdom annexed its future capital, Lisbon. Step by step the descendants of Henry recovered lands held by the Mohammedans, and in 1251 their conquests in the peninsula were completed by the seizure of the southern kingdom of Algarve. By that time Castile had gained the whole of central and most of southern Spain, including Murcia. Only one Moorish kingdom—that of **Granada**—remained to be subdued.

### *Spain*

**7. The Kingdom of Spain.**—In 1479 Ferdinand, King of Aragon, married Isabel, Queen of Castile; and during their reign, in 1492, the Moors were finally expelled, the kingdom of Granada being annexed to Castile. In the same year Columbus, in the service of Ferdinand and Isabel, discovered **America**, and thus a vast field of enterprise was opened to Spaniards in the New World. Upon the death of Ferdinand in 1516 the crowns of Castile and Aragon descended to his grandson Charles, and from this time dates the existence of the modern kingdom of SPAIN. It included—besides Navarre, south of the Pyrenees, which had been annexed by Ferdinand—the Aragonese possessions in the Mediterranean and north of the Pyrenees. Charles, too, inherited the rich Low Countries and other lands of the House of Burgundy, and he was lord of the great Spanish territories in America. His personal importance was farther increased by his election, as Charles V, to the crown of the Holy Roman Empire. His son, Philip II, obtained all his hereditary dominions, and in 1580 took possession of Portugal, which remained connected with Spain during the following sixty years.

During the sixteenth century Spain was by far the most powerful kingdom in Europe; and as it made itself the champion of the Roman Church, it was the terror of those states which accepted the doctrines of the Reformation. By useless wars and stupid tyranny Philip II undermined the greatness of his country; and during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries Spain lost more and

more of her power, and gradually sank into a state of lethargy from which she has never been thoroughly aroused. In 1804 the kingdom was made over by Napoleon to his brother Joseph; but, aided by England, the Spaniards, who fought for independence with great gallantry, freed themselves from French domination, and their native king, Ferdinand VII., was restored. Queen Isabel, Ferdinand's daughter, was dethroned in 1868; and in 1870 Amadeo, the second son of King Victor Emmanuel of Italy, was made her successor. In 1873 Amadeo abandoned the task he had undertaken, and a republic was then tried; but that also failed. In 1876 the monarchy was restored by Alfonso XII., Queen Isabel's son.

**8. Colonies.**—In the early part of the present century Spain lost her possessions on the American continent, but she still has some remains of her formerly great colonial empire. She possesses in the West Indies the islands Cuba and Puerto Rico; in Asia the Philippine islands, the Sooloo islands, the Caroline islands, and the Marianne islands. She has also the Canary islands, some strips of territory on the west coast of Africa, and Ceuta, opposite Gibraltar.

**9. Area, Population, and National Character.**—Continental Spain has an area of 191,000 square miles, and a population of 17,329,032—or eighty-five for every square mile.

The population includes 440,000 Basques, 60,000 Morescoes, and 50,000 gypsies. The mass of the people are of very mixed origin, including Iberian, Keltic, Teutonic, Arabic, and Moorish elements. The Spaniards have always been remarkable for bravery in war, and for a passionate love of independence. In most parts of the country, but especially in Castile, their manner is distinguished by a certain grave courtesy; and the typical Spanish gentleman, while punctilious in claiming personal respect, is no less punctilious in giving to others the honour which he believes to be their due. With regard to religion and politics, as their history proves, they are apt to be bitterly intolerant; and their national

pride makes them too ready to believe in the superiority of their country to other lands. Like other southern peoples, they have a very inadequate idea of the obligations of man to the lower animals—a fact which explains the delight they take in the most popular of their public amusements, the Spanish bull-fight.

Their language is a Romance tongue, and of its various dialects that of Castile is the one which has been used in their literature. It is a language of great beauty, and has been a fitting organ for the expression of the ideas of many illustrious men of genius. The most famous of Spanish writers is Cervantes, whose *Don Quixote* takes a lofty place in the literature of the world. At the head of the dramatists of Spain are Lope de Vega and Calderon. Spain has made no splendid contributions to science, but her schools of art include many important and some great names, the foremost being Velasquez and Murillo.

**10. Government**—The system of government is a constitutional monarchy. Parliament, called the *Cortes*, consists of a Senate and a Congress, the latter elected by the people, the former consisting of members some of whom sit by their own right, while others are appointed for life by the Crown, and others are chosen by various corporations. The king rules by means of ministers who are responsible to the *Cortes*.

The country is divided into fifty provinces, and these again into communes. Both the communes and the provinces are self-governing, and neither the Crown nor the *Cortes* have the right to interfere with them except when their action seems to affect general interests.

The armed forces consist of a permanent army and of a first and second reserve. They are recruited by means of conscription, and all Spaniards of the age of twenty are liable to be drawn for service. The regular army in times of peace consists of 144,664 men; in war the number would be 410,190. The navy in 1888 was manned by 14,000 sailors and 7000 marines in active service.

**11. Religion and Education**.—The fact that the people of the peninsula had to fight for so many centuries with

the enemies of their faith caused them to be peculiarly earnest and devoted Catholics. At the time of the Reformation the new doctrines produced little impression in Spain, and all attempts to introduce them were sternly crushed by the Inquisition. Even now Protestantism is not fully tolerated. Roman Catholicism is the religion of the State, and Protestants are not allowed to make public announcement of their meetings for worship.

Nominally, primary education is compulsory, but compulsion has never been really enforced. According to the census of 1877, there were more than 7,000,000 persons above the age of twelve who could not read. Since that time, however, there has been a considerable improvement. There are ten universities, and students are prepared for them in secondary schools, of which there must be one, besides private schools, in every province.

**12. Industry and Trade.**—The soil of Spain is divided among an immense number of proprietors, and in the provinces along the coasts it is industriously cultivated. The chief cereals are wheat, rye, barley, and maize. In the valley of the Guadalquivir splendid crops of wheat are grown, but the southern and eastern districts generally are devoted principally to the production of wine, oil, and southern fruits. The productive parts of the central table-lands are used mainly for the growth of cereals and for the pasturage of sheep and cattle, and along the north-western coasts the fruits characteristic of central Europe are largely cultivated. An important trade in sheep, goats, mules, and asses is carried on, and in many districts the silk-worm is a source of profit. Spain does not rank among the great industrial countries, but her manufactures are gradually becoming more important. Among her manufactured products are cotton, silk, leather, paper, and corks for bottles. She has also a good many foundries for the working of metals.

Few countries in the world are so rich in minerals. Lead mines were worked in southern and eastern Spain in the time of the Phoenicians, the Carthaginians, and the Romans; and lead is still produced in these regions. Large quantities of iron are brought up in Viscaya, and

elsewhere quicksilver, copper, zinc, rock-salt, and other minerals are found. There are many coal-beds, but few of them are worked.

Lying between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, and possessing good harbours, Spain has natural facilities for a much larger foreign commerce than she actually carries on. The countries with which she trades to the greatest extent are France, Great Britain, the nations of America, and Germany. By far the most important product exported is wine, after which come minerals, fruits, cork, wool, cattle, and oil. Among the chief imports are cereals and flour, cotton and cotton stuffs, spirits, timber, tobacco, fish, sugar, and coal.

**13. The Basque Provinces.**—In the description of the various districts of Spain it is best to follow the old historic divisions, for, although no longer used for administrative purposes, they are still recognised by the people, and generally mark real differences of provincial character.

At the western end of the Pyrenees are the mountainous Basque provinces, *Guipuzcoa*, *Viscaya*, and *Alava*. These provinces were included in the ancient Cantabria; and a special interest attaches to them as the home of the descendants of the earliest inhabitants of the peninsula. The Basques, like their neighbours, were thoroughly conquered by the Romans, but they never submitted to the west Goths or to the Saracens. In the thirteenth century they recognised the kings of Castile as their protectors, but they retained many special privileges, which have been only recently withdrawn. They are a bright, pleasant, hard-working people, and their land has a general aspect of material prosperity. Among the mountains there are rich veins of iron, which are energetically worked. Copper, tin, and various kinds of marble are also produced. On the coast are many fishing villages. The methods of agriculture are very primitive, but for the lack of good appliances the peasantry to some extent make up by steady labour.

*Guipuzcoa* is bounded in the east by the lower course of the Bidassoa, which here forms the limit between Spain

and France. At the mouth of this river is FUENTERRABIA, strongly fortified. Farther to the west lies SAN SEBASTIAN, a trading town, also strongly fortified. The chief town in *Viscaya* is BILBAO, with a considerable trade. It is built in a picturesque hilly district, near the coast, on the small river Ibaichaval. The capital of *Alava* is VITTORIA, in the beautiful valley of the Zadorra.

**14. Navarre.**—East of the Basque Provinces lies *Navarre*, a part of the ancient kingdom of the same name, which retained its independence until this portion of it was annexed by King Ferdinand in the fifteenth century. The greater part of the province consists of terraces advancing from the Pyrenees towards the valley of the Ebro, which flows past its southern border. Many of the valleys are fertile and diligently cultivated. The people speak Spanish, but are mainly of the Iberian stock, with some Gothic elements. Like the Basques, they are remarkable for their vigour, industry, and love of freedom. The capital is PAMPLONA, on the Arga, rendered important by its fortifications.

**15. Asturias.**—We come next to the provinces which were thoroughly incorporated with the kingdom of Castile.

*Asturias* occupies a part of the narrow district which lies between the Cantabrian range and the Bay of Biscay. It is a wild country, with many high mountains, and has often served as a place of refuge for exiles in the exciting periods of Spanish history. Here was formed the first of the kingdoms which fought with the Saracens. To a large extent the people are of Gothic descent, and they are of a remarkably simple, honest, and manly type of character. They are chiefly engaged in agriculture, which they carry on in the valleys. In one of these valleys lies OVIEDO, the capital. GIJON, on the coast, has a good harbour. It was famous in the eighth century as the residence of King Pelayo.

**16. Galicia.**—*Galicia*, in the north-west corner of Spain, was also at one time an independent kingdom. This province, especially the eastern part of it, is covered with groups of hills, offshoots from the Cantabrian range; but

there is ample scope for agriculture in the river-valleys, while in the higher valleys there is pasturage for sheep and cattle. The most interesting town is SANTIAGO DE COMPOSTELLA, famous for its cathedral, into the foundations of which, as some Spaniards believe, are built the bones of the Apostle St. James, the patron saint of Spain. Pilgrimages are still made to Santiago, but not to the same extent as in the middle ages. On a small headland on the coast is CORUNNA, a fortified seaport. It was of some importance in Roman times, and the fine harbour still has a lighthouse which was built by the Emperor Trajan. From this port the Spanish Armada, which was to conquer England, set sail in 1588. Sir John Moore was buried in the ramparts of Corunna, near which he had defeated the French in a battle in which he was mortally wounded. EL FERROL, also on the coast, has a great arsenal and dockyards.

17. **Leon.**—*Leon* includes in the north-west a hilly region connected with the Cantabrian range, but the greater part of it lies in the northern table-land. It has many rather desolate tracts, but the productive parts are well cultivated. The town LEON, now the centre of the linen trade, has great towers and public buildings which suggest its ancient importance. It is said that in the cathedral thirty-seven kings are buried. SALAMANCA, beautifully situated on the Tormes, was nearly destroyed by the French in 1812, but it has still some fine old ecclesiastical and other buildings, dating from the time when it was one of the largest and most important cities in the peninsula. It has a famous university. CIUDAD RODRIGO, near the Portuguese frontier, has strong fortifications. Near it, and also near Salamanca, Wellington defeated the French in 1812.

18. **Old Castile.**—*Old Castile* occupies the eastern part of the northern table-land. It takes in also some territory on the northern coast, a portion of the Ebro valley, and some strips of land to the south of the Sierra de Guadarrama. Many of the higher districts, as in Leon, are devoted to the pasturage of sheep. The Castilians, whom the inhabitants of Leon closely resemble, have the reputation of being the proudest people in the

world ; but their pride, if somewhat excessive, is associated with an admirably loyal, temperate, and honourable spirit. The largest town is SANTANDER (pop. 41,702), a fortified town on the coast, from whose harbour Castile and Leon export their wool and woollen stuffs. BURGOS, built round a hill overlooking the Arlanzon, is the centre of the woollen trade, and has great fortifications. Its cathedral is one of the finest in Europe, and the city prides itself on having been the birthplace of the Cid, the most brilliant hero of Castilian mediæval history. VALLADOLID (pop. 49,877), on the Pisuerga, was formerly the seat of the government. It has great open squares, the buildings of which testify to its past greatness. SIMANCAS is a small town in which the archives of Castile and Leon are preserved. SEGOVIA is built on a rocky plateau, on the top of which stands the cathedral. Opposite the town, on a height, is the Alcazar, a Moorish palace. Segovia was an important Roman town, and it is still supplied with water by means of a magnificent Roman aqueduct. To the south of the Sierra Guadarrama is the ESCORIAL, a vast monastery built by Philip II in fulfilment of a vow that if St. Lawrence, on whose day the battle of St. Quentin was fought, would give him the victory, he would dedicate a monastery to the saint. In reference to the supposed method of St. Lawrence's martyrdom, the Escorial is built in the form of a gridiron. Attached to it are a palace and a royal mausoleum.

**19. New Castile.**—*Castile*, the eastern part of the great southern table-land, includes some of the least inviting districts in Spain ; and no portion of it is remarkable for fertility or beauty. To the south of the Sierra de Guadarrama, on the stream Manzanares, is the capital, MADRID (pop. 385,888). It lies in an undulating, barren region, with no natural advantages except such as the city derives from its central position. In the tenth century Madrid was a small settlement of the Saracens. During the middle ages it remained unimportant, but towards the end of the fifteenth century it began to be used as an occasional residence of the court, and Philip II, abandoning Valladolid, made Madrid the capital of the kingdom. Highways and

railways now radiate from it to all parts of the country. The greater part of it is regularly built, with wide streets and squares ; and it has the general appearance of being a new city. It has a university and a fine royal palace, the latter built by Philip V in the eighteenth century. The museum contains a splendid collection of pictures, including most of the masterpieces by Velasquez.

TOLEDO is built on hills overlooking the Tagus, which sweeps round three sides of the city. It existed before the conquest of Spain by the Romans, by whom it was called *Toletum*. The west Goths made it their capital, and afterwards it was held by the Saracens until 1085, when it was annexed to Castile. The great cathedral and a large number of other fine churches, which are far beyond the needs of the present population, are survivals from the time when Toledo was the centre of the Spanish Church. There are also many specimens of Moorish architecture, the most prominent being the Alcazar, now used for barracks. Toledo has a university and other important educational institutions. For centuries it has been famous for its highly finished and beautiful swords, and it has some woollen and silk manufactures. Farther up the Tagus is ARANJUEZ, a name derived from "Ara Jovis," the altar of Jupiter. Here there is a royal palace with splendid gardens, in which are great elm-trees brought by Philip II from England.

*La Mancha*, to the south of the mountains of Toledo, is for the most part a desolate region, famous as the country of Don Quixote. CIUDAD REAL has a great market for the sale of mules and asses, and at ALMADEN there are extensive quicksilver and cinnabar mines.

**20. Estremadura.**—The province of *Estremadura* occupies the western part of the southern table-land. The name meant originally the province beyond the Douro, the old boundary of the kingdom of Leon. The surface is more varied than that of New Castile ; and the district was densely populated in the time of the Romans, the west Goths, and the Moors. The climate is so hot and dry in summer that there are now few inhabitants, and the towns are merely remnants of the ancient cities. In the

north-east is PLASENCIA, with many fine churches, any one of which is said to be capable of holding the entire population of the town. In a solitude to the east of Plasencia is the monastery of San Geronimo de Yuste, whither the Emperor Charles V retired after his abdication, and where he died in 1558. ALCANTARA (Arabic for "the bridge"), on the Tagus, has a magnificent bridge built by Trajan. MERIDA represents the Roman *Emerita Augusta*, founded by Augustus for his veterans. It has some splendid Roman antiquities. At BADAJOZ (the Roman *Pax Augusta*), on the Guadiana, the most important fortified place on the frontier near Portugal, Wellington gained one of his victories over the French.

**21. Andalusia.**—*Andalusia* takes in the basin of the Guadalquivir, a part of the valley of the lower Guadiana, and the Sierra Nevada and allied mountain-groups. With the exception of some steppe regions, Andalusia is the most fertile district in Spain. It has a superb climate and fine scenery, and includes several flourishing cities, each of which was at one time the centre of a Moorish kingdom. The people are to a large extent of Moorish origin, and are remarkable for their delight in the pleasanter aspects of life, their generosity, and their bright and joyous temper.

The most important city is SEVILLE (pop. 131,048), on the Guadalquivir. It represents the *Hispal* of the Phoenicians, the *Hispalis* of the Romans, and the *Isbilia* of the Moors. There is a fine relic of the Roman time in a beautiful aqueduct, still used. In the older part of the town, which is essentially Moorish, the streets are narrow and winding, with high, white houses, connected with which are wide shaded courts and gardens. The most splendid building in the city is the cathedral, with its lofty square tower, the *Giralda*, from which in old times the Mohammedans of Seville were summoned to worship. Near the cathedral is the Alcazar, second in magnificence, among Moorish buildings, only to the Alhambra of Granada. Many of the churches have fine paintings by Murillo, who was a native of Seville. The city has a university, and some important industries, including iron-works and

the manufacture of silk and porcelain. A great trade is also carried on.

Farther up the Guadalquivir is CORDOVA (pop. 48,897), representing the Roman *Corduba*, the birthplace of Lucan and Seneca. It is overlooked by beautiful hills covered with olive-trees. Cordova was the seat of the Spanish caliphate, and its great cathedral was formerly a mosque,



FIG. 10.—SEVILLE.

on the site of which had been built in succession a temple of Janus and a church of the west Goths. The town has only a shadow of its former prosperity, but it still has manufactures of silk fabrics and other industries, and produces excellent work in gold and silver.

On a small southern tributary of the Guadalquivir is JAEN, at the foot of a castle-crowned hill. It was formerly the seat of a Moorish kingdom, and is still surrounded by Moorish walls with towers and pinnacles ; but it is no longer an important town.

GRANADA (pop. 66,778), formerly the capital of the last of the Moorish kingdoms, is beautifully situated in a

hilly district descending from the Sierra Nevada. Past it flows the Jenil, and the neighbouring country is covered with olive-groves, fig-trees, and pomegranate-trees, and produces in lavish abundance the vine, the jasmine, and the myrtle. On the top of one of the two hills on which the greater part of Granada is built stands the famous Moorish palace, the **Alhambra** ("The Red," so called from the reddish hue of the walls by which it is surrounded).



FIG. 11.—THE ALHAMBRA.

Granada has also a splendid cathedral and a university. Its chief manufactures are silk and paper.

Passing westward from Cape Tarifa, the southernmost point of Andalusia, we come to **Cape Trafalgar**, a name famous in the naval history of England. CADIZ (pop. 57,100), representing the Phoenician Gades, is the oldest city in western Europe. It is strongly fortified, and is the chief centre of the export trade of Spain. Behind it is JEREZ, from which comes the wine called sherry, the word being a corruption of the name of the town. From a port

near Palos, in 1492, Columbus set sail on the voyage which led to the discovery of America.

North-east of Cape Tarifa rises the rocky promontory of Gibraltar, held by England since 1704, and associated with the memory of some of the most stirring incidents in English history. MALAGA, at the mouth of the Guadalorze, lies in a small but fruitful plain enclosed by mountains. The town is dominated by a hill, on the top of which is an old Moorish castle transformed into a citadel. Malaga is famous for its wine, and has a good harbour with much trade. ALMERIA has an important export trade in lead, and is well fortified.

**22. Murcia.**—The province of *Murcia* includes a desolate district in the north, but in the basin of the Segura there are many fertile valleys. The people have a high reputation for honesty and thoroughness of character. The principal town is MURCIA (pop. 91,986), on the Segura, the chief centre of the Spanish silk trade. LORCA (pop. 52,934) is inhabited chiefly by descendants of baptized Moors. CARTHAGENA (pop. 75,908) represents *Carthago Nova*, built by the Carthaginians. It has a fine harbour, with an arsenal and dockyards, and is protected by strong fortresses and batteries.

**23. Valencia.**—The provinces which remain to be noted formed part of the kingdom of Aragon.

*Valencia* is to a large extent covered with hills and groups of hills belonging to the Iberian highlands, but there are tracts of rich land in the valleys of the Segura, the Jucar, and the Guadalaviar. These yield abundant crops of rice. The Moors settled in great numbers in this region, and most of the native inhabitants are either wholly or in part descended from them. The principal town is VALENCIA (pop. 141,482), formerly the capital of the kingdom of Valencia. It lies on the coast, at the mouth of the Guadalaviar, and has a great trade and many industries, of which the manufacture of silk is the chief. Valencia was a busy city in the time of the Romans, and has never lost its importance. It is closely connected with the name of the Cid, by whom it was captured from the Moors in the eleventh century. It has a cathedral

and a university, and was at one time the seat of a distinguished school of painters. Around it spreads out the most famous of the "Huertas," or gardens, of Valencia—a plain ingeniously irrigated by the Moors, and producing immense quantities of carobs, oranges, citrons, and other fruits. Here also, as in many other districts of Valencia, the palm-tree flourishes.

Alicante, another coast town, has long been famous for its wine. Not very far from it is the inland town Elche, with magnificent palm-groves. The inhabitants of this little town carry on a large trade in dates and in palm branches, which are sent away to be used in the ceremonies connected with Palm Sunday. Alcoy, also an inland town, ranks next to Valencia as an industrial centre. At Murviedro, near the mouth of the Pallancia, there are ruins of ancient *Saguntum*.

**24. Catalonia.**—Catalonia is a thoroughly highland district, being almost filled with terraces of the Pyrenees, having few valleys in the interior and only narrow plains on the coast. Every scrap of productive soil is cultivated; the mines among the hills are successfully worked; in the cities are concentrated the chief manufacturing industries of Spain; and the people have always displayed a remarkable aptitude for trade. The province derived its name (originally *Gothalania*) from its conquerors, the Goths. The Catalonians were not much impressed by the advantages of the union of Aragon with Castile, and have often made themselves troublesome to the Spanish Government.

The chief town is BARCELONA (pop. 241,962), looking out upon the Mediterranean from a fine situation between the rivers Llobregat and Besos. It has a spacious but rather shallow natural harbour, formed by a peninsula, on which is built a suburban settlement, Barceloneta, inhabited chiefly by a fishing population. Near the city is the rocky hill Montjouy, crowned by a strong castle, and commanding a beautiful view of the sea and the Catalonian mountains. A town on the same site existed before the time of the Carthaginians. It was rebuilt by Hannibal's father, Amilcar Barca, after whom it was called Barcino.

Barcelona was one of the greatest Mediterranean ports during the middle ages, and it was there that Columbus, after his discovery of America, was received by Ferdinand and Isabel. It is now the chief centre of industry in Spain, and exports largely silk, woollen, and cotton fabrics, and other products manufactured in its mills. It has a cathedral and many other beautiful churches, a university, and important public libraries.

About thirty miles inland from Barcelona, near the Lobregat, rises the mountain called Montserrat, with wild jagged ridges, visible from a great distance out at sea. On this mountain, about half-way up, in one of its recesses, is built a Benedictine abbey, from which steep paths lead to thirteen ancient hermitages perched on almost inaccessible peaks. Ignatius Loyola, who became the founder of the order of the Jesuits, retired for a time to Montserrat when he resolved to renounce the world; and here he hung up his arms as a symbol that he was about to enter upon a more strenuous warfare than that which he had abandoned.

TORTOSA on the Ebro, and TARRAGONA and MATARO on the coast, are important industrial and trading towns. Tarragona represents the Roman *Tarraco*, and has fine Roman ruins. Its cathedral is one of remarkable beauty.

In the north-east of Catalonia Spain is exposed to invasion through the Pass across the *Col de Perthus*. Consequently FIGUERAS, CAMPREDON, GERONA, and other towns in this district are strongly fortified.

LERIDA, the ancient *Ilerda*, on the Segre, is a manufacturing town, with a cathedral and an old palace of the kings of Aragon. Higher up the river is the small town URGEL, near which the Segre receives its tributary the Balira. In the valley of this stream, enclosed by lofty heights of the Pyrenees, lies the small republic of ANDORRA, which has kept its independence since the ninth century. It includes more than thirty villages, of which ANDORRA LA VIELLA, on the Balira, the seat of government, is the chief. Andorra is neutral territory, and is under the joint protection of Spain and France.

25. **Aragon.**—*Aragon* includes a mountainous district in the north, a part of the basin of the Ebro, and the valley

of the upper Guadalaviar. Some of the high valleys among the mountains are very fertile, and near the Ebro, where the soil is well watered, there are good crops of rice and other grains ; but large tracts are almost barren, and even where the geographical conditions are favourable, the agricultural methods in use are too primitive to be of much service. The people of Aragon are brave and hardy, but display little enterprise in industry and commerce. The chief town is **ZARAGOZA** (pop. 82,507), on the Ebro. On the same site the Keltiberians had a city, which they called *Salduba*. The name was changed by the Romans to *Cæsarea Augusta*, of which the present name is a corruption. Zaragoza was formerly the capital of the kingdom of Aragon, and it still has many finely decorated houses, once the homes of Aragonese nobles. It has two cathedrals, an ancient and a modern, and a university. From the 21st of December 1808 to the 21st of February 1809 the city was besieged by the French, and defended with magnificent skill and valour. It has never recovered the injury afterwards done to it by its conquerors.

**26. The Balearic Isles**—The Balearic Isles, off the eastern coast, form a separate province. In ancient times they were visited by Phoenician and Greek traders, and afterwards became subject first to Carthage, then to Rome. They were reconquered from the Saracens by Aragon in the thirteenth century. The largest of them is **Majorca**, which has two ranges of mountains, one in the north-west, another in the south-east. The soil is well watered, and produces large quantities of oranges of the finest quality, and olives. The chief town is **PALMA** (pop. 58,224), on the west coast. It is beautifully situated, with a massive cathedral close to the sea. **Iviza** is a hilly island, but has fertile valleys carefully cultivated. **Minorca**, which is also hilly, affords good pasture for cattle, and around the coasts considerable fisheries are carried on. The chief town, **MAHON**, has an excellent harbour and some trade. During the eighteenth century this island was several times held by England.

*Portugal*

1. At the mouth of the Douro, on the left bank, there was in ancient times a city called *Cale*, now *Gaya*. The majority of the inhabitants gradually removed to the right bank, where there is a good harbour; and thus arose *Porto Cale*, or the harbour of *Cale*, called afterwards OPORTO, the harbour. *Porto Cale* gave its name to the kingdom of PORTUGAL, of which it was for some time the chief town.

2. **History.**—We have seen how Portugal originally comprised merely the lands between the Minho and the Douro; how it was granted, as a county, to Count Henry; how it became a kingdom; and how, at the cost of the Moors, it gradually extended its territory until it reached its present limits. Prevented by the growth of Castile from obtaining wider possessions in the peninsula, the Portuguese in the fifteenth century began to make conquests in north-western Africa, and took the Madeira Islands, the Azores, and the Cape Verde Islands. Their earliest African conquests, called **Algarve beyond the sea**, they lost, but their adventurous sailors explored more and more of the coast, until in 1487 Bartolommeo Deáz doubled the Cape of Good Hope. Afterwards, in 1498, the illustrious Vasco de Gama, as the result of this achievement, effected the passage by sea to India. Portugal thus secured great territories in Africa, India, and Arabia; and in 1531 she formed settlements in Brazil, which some of her mariners had discovered at the close of the fifteenth century. At this time Portugal was the greatest of maritime states, and her fame spread far and wide over the globe.

The sixty years during which Portugal was united with Spain were disastrous years in her history. Her people were grossly misgoverned, and lost most of their foreign dominions. In 1640 the country regained its independence, and won back Brazil, a large part of which had been seized by the Dutch. Portugal never recovered her position as a great power, but she kept, and still keeps, the

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Atlantic islands and fragments of her former territories in Africa and India.

In 1807, finding that Napoleon was determined to annex the country, the Prince Regent John fled to Brazil and fixed the seat of government at Rio Janeiro. The French then occupied Portugal, but were driven out by the combined English and Portuguese forces. In 1810 the Prince Regent became king, but he did not quit Rio Janeiro until a rebellion, which broke out at Oporto in 1820, compelled him to return to Lisbon. In 1822 Brazil became an independent empire, but continued until 1889 to be ruled by a representative of the Portuguese royal house. For many years Portugal was agitated by revolutionary movements, which resulted in the establishment of a free system of government.

**3. Area, Population, and National Character.**—The area of continental Portugal is 32,528 square miles, and in 1881 the population was estimated to be 4,306,554. This gives an average of 124 persons for every square mile.

The Portuguese, like the Spaniards, are of mixed origin, being descended from the ancient Iberians and Kelts, and from the Suevi, with elements derived from Castile and France; while in the south there is a large infusion of Moorish blood. They are ardently patriotic, fond of recalling the great days of their country, and they have often given proof of courage and love of freedom. All who know them well speak highly of their temperance, pleasant manners, and hospitality.

Their language differs from Spanish chiefly in pronunciation. It has been the language of many eminent writers, but of only one man of genius of the first rank—Camoens, the author of *Os Lusiadas*. This famous poet gave adequate expression to the highest intellectual life of Portugal in the splendid age of her history.

**4. Government.**—The Portuguese Parliament consists of two chambers, called the General Cortes—the House of Peers and the Chamber of Deputies. The latter are freely elected by the people. By a law passed in 1885 the former will by and by consist only of life peers; but this

law does not exclude from the chamber those who were hereditary peers at the time when the measure was adopted, nor will it exclude their immediate successors. No law passed twice by the two chambers can be vetoed by the Crown, but executive authority belongs to the sovereign, who exercises it by means of ministers responsible to the Cortes.

Every year Parliament determines what shall be the effective strength of the army, which is composed partly of men who are compelled to serve, partly of men who enlist of their own accord. For 1888-89 the number fixed was 30,000 ; but in the event of war there would be a force of 125,000 officers and men. In 1888 the navy was manned by 2850 sailors.

**5. Religion and Education.**—All forms of religion are tolerated ; but practically the entire population belongs to the Roman Church. The Church in Portugal is ruled by the Patriarch of Lisbon, who is always a cardinal, by two archbishops and fourteen bishops. The law requires that all parents shall send their children to school, but few of them are really compelled to do so, and the mass of the people are either very ill-educated or not educated at all, so far as school is concerned. The university of Coimbra is the only one in the country, but there are a good many secondary schools, both public and private, and several institutions for technical training.

**6. Industry and Trade.**—There are no great manufactures in Portugal, nor are its mines very valuable, although copper and iron are worked to some extent. The coast-fisheries, however, are an important source of wealth. The table-lands, as in Spain, include many unproductive districts, but there are also fertile valleys and plains, especially in the northern and southern provinces. The soil is not generally cultivated with skill and energy, and Portugal is one of the countries which are obliged to import grain. The chief crops are Indian corn and wheat. Large quantities of wine are produced, and the country is also famous for its cork, oranges, olives, figs, and mulberries.

The foreign trade is carried on mainly with England, and port wine is the principal product exported. Copper,

oxen, cork, fruits, and fish are also among Portuguese exports. Among the imports, besides grain, are iron, coal, butter, and cotton and woollen fabrics.

**7. Minho and Traz os Montes.**—The district to the north of the Douro is divided into two provinces, *Minho* and *Traz os Montes*. In both, but especially in *Traz os Montes*, there are many offshoots of the Cantabrian range. *Minho*, between the lower *Minho* and the lower *Douro*, was the original county of Portugal. It is the most densely populated, and the most industriously cultivated, part of the country. The chief town is *OPORTO* (pop. 105,838), of which something has already been said. It is finely situated, and has some manufactures and a great trade. Oporto is the chief place of export for the well-known wine to which it has given its name. The most important town in the interior is *Braga* (pop. 19,755), with Roman antiquities and a great cathedral.

*Traz os Montes* is too mountainous to support large and flourishing communities. There are, however, fertile districts, well cultivated, in the valleys of the *Sabor*, the *Tua*, and the *Tamega*, tributaries of the *Douro*. *CHAVES*, on the *Tamega*, is an ancient town with a Roman bridge. *BRAGANÇA*, on a height near a stream flowing into the *Sabor*, was made a duchy in 1442, and was the home of the ancestors of the present reigning family.

**8. Beira.**—*Beira*, the largest province of Portugal, includes the western part of the northern table-land of the peninsula and some territory to the south of the *Sierra da Estrella*. The chief town is *COIMBRA* (pop. 13,369), formerly the capital of Portugal. It is built chiefly on a hill rising from the right bank of the river *Mondego*, and is surrounded by olive-groves and orange-groves. Its fine towers, relics of past greatness, give it a striking appearance from a distance, but the streets are narrow, ill paved, and not over clean. The town now derives its importance wholly from its university, which was transferred to Coimbra from Lisbon in 1307. At *VIZEU* a great market is held.

**9. Estremadura.**—*Estremadura*, stretching southward from the mouth of the *Mondego*, takes in the south-western

part of the Sierra da Estrella, the Sierra de Cintra, the valley of the lower Tagus, and that of a part of the river Sadão. It is a province of great beauty, and includes many tracts of fertile land. In its lower course the Tagus widens out until it forms a considerable bay, and then narrows again before flowing into the Atlantic. At the point where this narrow part begins, on the right bank, is **Lisbon** (pop. 246,343), the capital of Portugal. Lisbon, originally called *Ulisippo*, was important before the time of the Romans, who made it the capital of *Lusitania*. After them it was held in succession by the Suevi, the west Goths, and the Saracens, from whom it was taken by Alfonso I. of Portugal in 1147. It was made the capital in 1383, and during the brilliant period of Portuguese history it was the chief centre of trade in the world. During the union of Portugal with Spain Lisbon lost its high place, which it has never recovered. On the 1st November 1755 it was visited by a terrible earthquake, by which a large part of the city was destroyed, and more than 20,000 persons lost their lives. The situation of Lisbon is hardly less magnificent than that of Naples or Constantinople. Like an amphitheatre, it spreads up beautiful hills rising from the bank of the Tagus, and has as a background the wild ridges of the Sierra de Cintra. West of the city lies the suburban district **Belém** (Bethlehem), whence Vasco de Gama set sail on his memorable voyage to India. Here is a great monastery founded in 1499 by King Emmanuel, and near it, on a sand-bank, is the **Torre de Belém**, a massive, picturesque old tower of Saracenic workmanship.

North-west of Lisbon is **CINTRA**, a charming little town nestling among mountains, and surrounded by forests of fir, oak, and chestnut, mingled with the cypress and the plane-tree. This is a favourite resort of the Court and the well-off classes of Lisbon in summer. **TORRES VEDRAS**, famous for the lines formed by Wellington in 1810, lies north of Cintra.

Among towns on the Tagus are **SANTAREM**, **TORRES NOVAS**, and **ABRANTES**, all situated in fertile districts, and carrying on trade with Lisbon. Between the Tagus and

the Sadão, on a fine bay, is SETUBAL, with a valuable export trade in wine and salt.

10. **Alemtejo.**—*Alemtejo* takes in the western part of the southern table-land of the peninsula. In the valleys of the Tagus and the Guadiana it has tracts of good soil, but it has also wide districts covered with heath, and almost uninhabited. EVORA (pop. 13,046), near the middle of the province, was a Roman city, and in the middle ages was

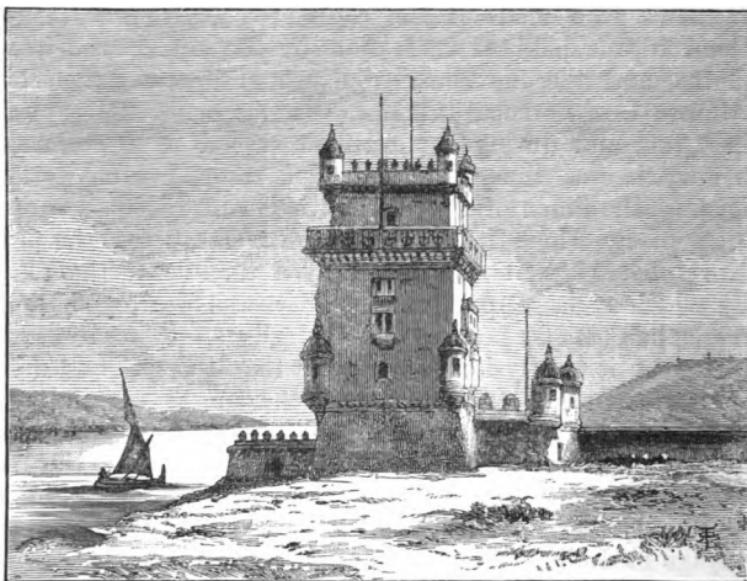


FIG. 12.—BELÉM, LISBON.

often the residence of the kings and the meeting-place of the Cortes. It is now only a small market-town. ELVAS, opposite Badajoz, is the most important stronghold of Portugal.

11. **Algarve.**—*Algarve*, formerly a Moorish kingdom, is one of the most picturesque of the Portuguese provinces. It takes in the greater part of the Sierra de Monchique, and has several highland districts, with a varied coast-line. The vegetation is like that of northern Africa, and most of the inhabitants seem to be of Moorish descent. They are the best sailors in Portugal. The present capital, FARO, has a

considerable trade in southern fruits. SILVES, the former capital, is surrounded by the ruins of walls built by the Moors. LOULÉ (pop. 14,448) lies in a deep and lovely valley ; and TAVIRA, at the mouth of the Sequa, is generally considered one of the most beautiful towns in the peninsula. It has important fisheries, and exports southern fruits.

**12. The Azores.**—Of the groups of Atlantic islands possessed by Portugal—the Azores, the Cape Verde islands, and the Madeira islands—the **Azores** may be said to belong geographically to Europe in the sense that they lie opposite the European coast. They were discovered by the Portuguese in 1432, and called Azores from *Açor*, a hawk, because many of these birds were observed on the islands. The group is of volcanic origin, and consists of hills with small table-lands parted by deep valleys. Earthquakes are frequent, and volcanic outbursts have occurred in recent times. The coasts are steep and rocky, without good harbours ; but the soil is remarkably fertile, and the climate genial and healthy. Among the chief exports are wine, brandy, and oranges. The largest and most densely populated of the islands is *São Miguel*. It has several important trading towns, the chief of which is PONTA DELGADA (pop. 17,635).

## CHAPTER V

### FRANCE

**1. Boundaries.**—North of the Pyrenees we come to FRANCE, the great country occupying the western extremity of the central part of the European continent. Its coasts are washed in the south-east by the Mediterranean, in the west by the Bay of Biscay, in the north by the English Channel, called by the French from its shape “La Manche.” France is separated from Italy by the Maritime, the Cottian, and the Graian Alps; from Switzerland by a part of the Pennine range and by the Jura mountains; from Germany and Belgium by an irregular, artificial boundary proceeding towards the north-west, and ending at the North Sea.

**2. The Coasts.**—The south-western coast advances northward to the Gironde in an almost straight line, interrupted only by the **Basin of Arcachon**. Along the shore is a series of shifting sand-dunes, piled up by the wind from sediment brought by currents flowing along the northern coast of Spain. Shallow lakes (*étangs*) have been separated from the sea by these dunes, and part them from the district called the Landes. Beyond the Gironde the coast is less regular, but remains flat and monotonous as far as the mouth of the Loire. From the mouth of the Sèvre Niortaise it takes a north-westerly direction, which it maintains to Point St. Matthieu, whence it proceeds a little way towards the north. It then turns towards the east, and faces the English Channel. Around Brittany the seaboard consists chiefly of old, hard rocks, so that there are many bold headlands. The peninsula of

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Cotentin, ending in the north-west with Cape **La Hogue**, juts into the Channel in a north-westerly direction ; and beyond it stretches the Bay of the Seine, in which, about five miles from the coast, there is a long and dangerous reef, consisting of the rocks of **Calvados**. From the mouth of the Seine to that of the Somme the coast-line advances towards the north-east, and here high chalk cliffs correspond to those of the opposite English seaboard. A low-lying coast reaches northward from the Somme to Cape **Gris Nez**, and eastward along the shore of the Strait of Dover and the North Sea.

Opposite the western and northern coast there are various islands, which, since they are of the same geological structure as the parts of the country off which they lie, must have been at one time continuous with the mainland. Among these islands are Oleron, Ré, Dieu, Noirmoutier, Belle Isle, Ouessant or Ushant, and the Channel Islands. The latter, although connected geographically with France, are subject to the English Crown.

The Mediterranean seaboard of France is divided into two wholly different parts. From the Pyrenees to Marseilles there is a generally flat and sandy coast, skirted in many places by lagoons and marshes. East of Marseilles the sea breaks against lofty and bold granite cliffs. Opposite this part of the coast lie the rocky islands of Hyères.

**3. Mountains.**—The highest points of French territory are to be found in the border ranges of the Pyrenees and the Alps. The Pyrenees descend more gradually on the northern than on the southern side, and the loftiest peaks are within the frontier of Spain. France, however, takes in many wild and beautiful parts of the range. Among these, west of the sources of the Garonne, are the deeply furrowed terraces which advance northward from the Pic du Midi, and the valleys of the Gave de Pau, d'Ossau, and d'Aspe. Between the Garonne and the Aude there is a lofty district in the neighbourhood of the Pic de Montcalm and the Pic du Petit-Siguer, and the district between the Aude and the eastern coast includes Mont Canigou and other great heights.

The Alpine region between France and Italy has not so high an average level as that of Switzerland, but in various districts it includes some of the grandest mountain scenery in the world. Within the French border is **Mont Blanc**, in which the Alps culminate. South of Mont Blanc are the Passes of Little St. Bernard, Mont Cenis, and Mont Genèvre. **Mont Cenis** gives its name to the great railway tunnel under the Pass of Fréjus, some miles distant.

The Jura mountains rise in the district to the southwest of the Lake of Geneva, between the Rhone and the Ain. The range lies chiefly in Switzerland and southern Germany, but its loftiest points are in France, where—in Dôle, Mont d'Or, and other heights—it reaches an elevation of about 6000 feet. The French part of the range is remarkable for the number and extent of its pine forests.

**4. Table-lands.**—Within these frontier ranges the physical features of France include two table-lands, which occupy the greater part of the eastern portion of the country—the central or south-eastern plateau, and the north-eastern plateau. The central plateau is separated from the Alps by the valley of the Rhone; from the Pyrenees by a depression through which flows the Canal du Midi, connecting the Garonne and the Aude; from the north-eastern plateau by another depression, traversed by the Canal du Centre, connecting the Loire and the Saône. In this table-land deep valleys have been formed by rivers and other denuding forces, so that it now consists of great ranges of hills. During the Miocene and later geological ages it was the scene of intense volcanic activity, and remnants of this period survive in volcanic cones, beds of lava, and hot springs. The southern part of the table-land is occupied by the **Cévennes**, which, beginning with **Monts Garrigues**, advance in a north-easterly direction to the volcanic district of **Mont Mézère**, a height reaching an elevation of 5755 feet, and surrounded by lofty basaltic peaks. The **Margeride** mountains connect the Cévennes with the mountains of **Auvergne**, which consist of a long line, running north and south, of volcanic cones, called **Puys**. The craters of many of these mountains are still visible,

and the district as a whole is one of wild desolation. The range includes in the south a vast cone, the base of which is about ninety-five miles in circumference, while the loftiest point, the **Plomb du Cantal**, is 6025 feet high. North of this great volcanic mass are **Mont Dor**, culminating in the **Puy de Sancy** (6180 feet); and the **Puy de Dôme** (4805 feet). East of the mountains of Auvergne, between the Allier and the Loire, are those of **Forez**, the loftiest point of which is the **Puy de Montoncelle** (4240 feet). Between the Loire and the Rhone rise the mountains of Lyonnais. They are continued northward by the mountains of Charollais.

The north-eastern table-land begins in the south with the **Côte d'Or**, which is so called because of the wealth derived from the vines that cover its eastern slopes. It descends gradually towards the west until it reaches the valley of the Arroux, which parts it from the **Morvan** mountains. North of the **Côte d'Or**, beyond a depression in which the Canal of Burgundy connects the Yonne with the Saône, is the plateau of Langres, from the north-eastern end of which the hills of **Faucille** proceed eastward towards the **Ballon d'Alsace**, the southernmost height of the Vosges mountains. The hills of **Faucille** have various offshoots, the most important of which is the forest of **Argonne**, which, passing along the left bank of the Meuse, unites with the **Ardennes** at the border of Belgium. A lower ridge, which gradually fades into the northern plain, is continued in a north-westerly direction, and divides the valley of the Schelde from that of the Somme and other streams flowing into the English Channel.

**5. The Eastern Plain, and the Rhone.**—Two plains, of very unequal extent, spread out from the central plateau; the smaller one towards the east, the greater towards the west and north. The *eastern plain* is traversed by the **Rhone**, which springs from a glacier in a valley of the St. Gothard, and flows westward into the Lake of Geneva. From the south-western end of this lake the river emerges, flowing first towards the south, then towards the west as far as Lyons; receiving, on the left

bank, from Mont Blanc, the *Arve*; on the right, from the Jura, the *Ain*. At Lyons the Rhone is joined by the *Saône*, which rises on the plateau of Langres, and receives from the Jura its chief tributary, the *Doubs*. Reinforced by the *Saône*, the Rhone proceeds towards the south, receiving, among other tributaries, the *Ardèche* and the *Gard* from the Cevennes, the *Isère* and the *Durance* from the Alps. At Arles it is divided into two streams, which form a wide marshy delta as they flow into the Mediterranean. One of the most striking characteristics of the Rhone is its rapidity, which is a serious hindrance to navigation. As far as Lyons it is also remarkable for its purity, and for some distance beyond that point its clear water may be distinguished from that contributed by the slow, muddy *Saône*. The valley of the Rhone is narrow in the north, being hemmed in by spurs of the Alps and the mountains of the central plateau; but it widens as it advances towards the sea.

**6. The western Plain, and its Rivers.**—Although called a plain, the country to the west and north-west of the central plateau is far from being uniformly flat. It is an undulating region, descending by slow degrees to the coast, and interrupted here and there by hilly districts. In the extreme north-west there is an isolated highland region, beginning in Brittany with the two ranges of hills, the *Montagnes d'Arée* and the *Montagnes Noires*. These ranges are separated by the valley of the *Aulne*, near the sources of which they unite. The line of hills then advances eastward, through Brittany and Normandy, to the neighbourhood of Chartres and Evreux.

The greater part of the western plain is occupied by the basins of three rivers, the *Garonne*, the *Loire*, and the *Seine*. The *Garonne* rises in the Spanish valley of Aran, near the Maladetta group of mountains, and escapes from the Pyrenees a little to the west of St. Gaudens. From this point it flows towards the north-east as far as Toulouse, whence it takes a north-westerly direction, receiving from the Cevennes the *Tarn*, with its tributary the *Aveyron*, and the *Lot*, and from Mont Dor the

*Dordogne.* After its union with the Dordogne the Garonne forms a great estuary called the **Gironde**, in which there are many small islands and sandbanks.

South of the Garonne flows the **Adour**, which also rises in the Pyrenees. The **Charente** and the **Sèvre Niortaise**, both of which rise in a ridge called the **Gatine**, enter the Bay of Biscay to the north of the Garonne.

The **Loire**, the longest of French rivers, rises at the **Gerbier de Joncs**, in the Cévennes, and cuts its way northward through a deep, narrow valley between the mountains of Lyonnais and Forez. At Nevers it is joined by the **Allier**, which rises at Mont Lozère, in the Cévennes. In its upper course, between the mountains of Forez and Auvergne, the Allier has banks of lava. Near Clermont its valley widens out into the fertile plain of **Limagne** but becomes narrow beyond Moulins. From Nevers to Tours the Loire describes, roughly, a semicircle, and over the greater part of the way it is accompanied on the right bank by low hills, those in the neighbourhood of Orléans being richly wooded. The country through which the Loire passes in its middle course is highly picturesque, and its beauty is enhanced by many a fine old castle. Below Tours the river has a general westerly direction, and here it has some important tributaries; on the left bank the *Cher*, the *Indre*, the *Vienne* (with the *Creuse*), and the *Sèvre Nantaise*; on the right the *Mayenne*, the *Sarthe*, and the *Loir*, which unite to form the *Maine*. From Nantes onwards the Loire opens out into an estuary with islands. The river is navigable as far up as Roanne, but as its islands and sandbanks are troublesome, and as its supply of water in summer is often insufficient, a canal flows side by side with it from Chatillon.

North of the Loire flows the **Vilaine**, with its tributary the **Ille**.

The **Seine**, the next great river, rises at the Côte d'Or, and in its upper course is enriched by the *Aube*, from the *Faucille* mountains; and by the *Yonne* from the Côte d'Or, with its tributary the *Armançon* from the *Morvan* mountains. Farther down, the Seine receives on the right bank the *Marne*, from the *Faucille* mountains, and

the *Oise*, with its tributary the *Aisne*; and, on the left bank, the *Eure*. Like the Garonne and the Loire, the Seine ends in an estuary. It is navigable as far up as Troyes.

In some respects the river system of France has a striking resemblance to that of the Iberian peninsula. Each has one great river which flows into the Mediterranean; and both the valley of the Ebro and that of the Rhone widen as they approach the sea. The general slope of the two lands is towards the west, and in each of them all the great rivers, with one exception, flow westward in more or less parallel lines. But the rivers of France are distinguished from those of the peninsula by the fact that the configuration of the country permits them to be fed by great tributaries.

**7. Climate.**—The rainfall of France, although not inadequate for the needs of the country, is less considerable than that of lands in which the coast is generally bordered by mountains or hills. Along the western seaboard the temperature is lowered in summer by the comparative coolness of the winds from the sea, raised in winter by their comparative warmth. As we advance towards the east, we find that the weather becomes more and more cold in winter, more and more warm in summer. In the valley of the Rhone, however, the heat is kept down in the spring and early summer by a cold dry wind, called the *Mistral*, blowing from the north. On the most elevated parts of the central plateau a bleak wind blows all the year round.

**8. History.**—The country called in ancient times Gaul took in the whole of what is now France, and the region stretching east and north-east as far as the Rhine. In the time of Julius Cæsar this great territory was divided into three parts. The district between the Pyrenees and the Garonne was called *Aquitania*. From the Garonne on the one hand to the Seine and the Marne on the other the **Gauls** were settled; and beyond them, in the country reaching to the Rhine, were the **Belgæ**. The Gauls and the Belgæ were groups of Keltic tribes, and, like other Aryans, were tall and strong, with fair hair and blue eyes.

Before their arrival the land was occupied by Iberians or Basques. The people of this primitive, non-Aryan race were for the most part made to serve their Keltic conquerors, but in Aquitania they maintained their independence, speaking their own language and keeping their own institutions.

At an early period the Phoenicians established colonies on the Mediterranean coast of Gaul, and they were followed by the Greeks, who had several important settlements on this seaboard, including the towns now called Marseilles, Antibes, and Nice. In the second century b.c. the Romans took possession of the south-eastern corner of Gaul, and made it a province, whence a part of it is still called Provence. Between 58-50 b.c. the whole of Gaul was conquered by Julius Cæsar, and it remained subject to Rome until the break-up of the Western Empire. The people were so thoroughly subdued that most of them gave up the use of their native language, and learned to speak Latin.

When the Roman Empire began to lose its energy, Gaul was often harassed by Teutonic invaders ; and in the course of the fifth century they destroyed the last remnants of Roman authority. The Burgundians settled in the valleys of the Saône and the Rhone, and the west Goths formed a kingdom which included, with the greater part of the Iberian peninsula, the south-western districts of Gaul. Greater than either of these were the Franks. Their kingdom, founded by Chlodovech or Clovis (481-511), reached its utmost extent under Charles the Great (768-814), who ruled Gaul, Germany, and northern Italy, besides various border districts. By the Treaty of Verdun, in 843, Charles's Empire was divided by his grandsons into a western, an eastern, and a central kingdom. The central kingdom was taken by the elder of the three brothers, Lothar, after whom it was called *Lotharingia*, a name which still survives in *Lorraine*. The western kingdom fell to Charles the Bald, and was therefore called *Carolingia*. The various parts of the Empire, with the exception of the kingdom of Burgundy, a district which had been included in the central kingdom,

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were reunited under Charles the Simple; but he was dethroned in 887, and from that time the western and the eastern kingdoms were never again joined together.

In 987, the last direct descendant of Charles the Great having died, the crown of the western kingdom, or Carolingia, was given to Hugh Capet, Duke of France, by whose family it was held until the extinction of the French monarchy. The south-eastern part of what is now France was at that time the kingdom of Burgundy, which afterwards became a portion of the Holy Roman Empire; and Lorraine belonged to Germany. The name **France** was confined to the Duchy of which Paris was the capital, and which was immediately subject to the king. The rest of the kingdom was divided into territories, the chiefs of which owed a nominal allegiance to the crown, but were in reality almost independent princes. Among these territories were the Duchies of Normandy, Brittany, Aquitania or Aquitaine, and Burgundy (which was distinct from the kingdom of Burgundy). Gradually these and other feudal territories were incorporated with the country which the king himself ruled, and thus came to be included in what was strictly called France. The process was practically completed in the time of Louis XI, who reigned from 1461 to 1483. France was also extended by the annexation of foreign lands. During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries most of the kingdom of Burgundy was taken, bit by bit. By the accession of Henry IV France received the part of Navarre north of the Pyrenees, and the Peace of the Pyrenees (1659) gave her Roussillon, which had belonged to Aragon. At various periods, beginning in 1552, when she seized the Lotharingian bishoprics of Metz, Verdun, and Toul, France enriched herself at the expense of Germany, ultimately obtaining possession of the whole of Alsace and Lorraine. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries she also annexed territories which had been included in the Low Countries.

During the middle ages the authority of the crown was limited by that of the great nobles. Their power was finally broken, and the monarchy made absolute, by Cardinal Richelieu, who, under Louis XIII, ruled France

from 1624 to 1642. The evils arising from despotism became so intolerable that they led to the **Revolution**, which began in 1789. The Republic, established in 1792, was succeeded by the Empire of Napoleon, under whom, for some years, France directly or indirectly controlled the whole of Europe with the exception of England and Russia. He was overthrown in 1815, after which France had to content herself with the boundaries she possessed in 1790. The old ruling family, the Bourbons, were restored, but in 1830 France drove them from the throne, and placed on it Louis Philippe of the House of Orléans. He in turn was displaced in 1848, when a Republic was proclaimed. This was brought to an end by Napoleon III, who reigned as emperor from 1851 to 1870. During his reign he added Savoy and Nice to France; but in 1871, at the conclusion of the war he had begun with Germany in the previous year, France lost Alsace and a part of Lorraine. On the fall of the second Empire in 1870 a **Republic** was established, and this is the form of government under which France still lives.

**9. Colonies.**—At one time it seemed not improbable that France would become the greatest colonising power in the world. Early in the sixteenth century she began to send emigrants to North America, and as the owner of Canada she afterwards claimed a vast territory west of the English settlers on the eastern American seaboard. By the Treaty of Paris, 1763, she ceded her North American territory to England. At the same time she lost almost all her possessions in India, where she had laid the foundations of what appeared likely to become a great empire. Thus it was decided that the foremost place as a colonising state was to belong not to France, but to England. France, however, retained, and still holds, various colonies she had secured in the seventeenth century—among others, French Guiana and some West Indian islands, Senegambia, and Pondicherry. In the present century she has vastly extended her colonial dominion. In 1830 she conquered Algeria, and in 1881 established a protectorate over Tunis. Her other African territories, recently acquired, include the Gold Coast and a

region in the basin of the Congo. She took Cochin-China in 1861, and French Tonkin in 1884, and she has the rights of a protector in Annam and Cambodia. In Oceania she possesses New Caledonia, Tahiti, and other islands. Altogether, her colonies and the countries she protects have an area of 963,062 square miles, and a population of about 27,675,339.

**10. Area, Population, and National Character.**—The population of France increases at a less rapid rate than that of any other European country. In 1872, the year after the close of the war with Germany, the population was 36,102,921. In 1886 it was 38,218,903. The area of the country is 204,177 square miles, so that for every square mile there is a population of 187.

In the northern part of France a large proportion of the people belong to the tall fair-haired type, and are descended from the ancient Gauls and Belgæ, and from the Franks and other Teutonic settlers. In the southern districts this type occurs much less frequently, the vast majority being short and dark-haired. These are the descendants of the pre-Aryan population.

In Brittany about 1,230,000 of the inhabitants speak a Keltic dialect, and it is said that 768,000 of them do not understand French. Along the northern slopes of the Pyrenees there are 116,000 inhabitants who speak Basque, the pre-Keltic language. About 300,000 people speak Italian in Nice and Corsica. French, the speech of the people as a whole, belongs to the group of Romance languages, and sprang from the Latin dialects spoken in ancient Gaul. It includes two dialects, descended from what were called in the middle ages the *langue d'oc* and the *langue d'oui*. The latter was spoken in northern, the former in southern France. From the *langue d'oui* arose the dialect used in modern literature, and by educated society.

The type of character which prevails in the north differs considerably from that which prevails in the south. Southern Frenchmen are excitable and passionate, easily accessible to the influence of grandiose phrases, fond of lively talk, and with a strong natural feeling for beauty of

form and colour. Frenchmen of the north are more sedate, more resolute in the fulfilment of serious purposes, more cautious and laborious. But everywhere in France, whatever may be the local peculiarities of temperament, the people have one characteristic in common—ardent patriotism. No people in the world are prouder of their native land than Frenchmen ; and this feeling often leads them to pay very insufficient attention to, and to form very mistaken judgments about, other countries. With regard to matters about which they are not misled by patriotic prejudice, they are remarkable for the directness and lucidity of their thought. They readily advance from individual facts to general doctrines, and miss no opportunity of carrying out in practical life what seem to them the logical conclusions of their principles.

Intellectually, France stands in the front rank of the nations. Her clear, polished, and beautiful language is an almost perfect medium for the expression of ideas ; and for many centuries she has had an unbroken succession of great prose writers. In poetry also she has excelled, but here her place is not so high as that of England, Germany, and Italy. To every branch of science, especially to the mathematical sciences, she has made magnificent contributions ; and she has produced many great architects, sculptors, and painters. The people generally have a strong artistic impulse, and this leaves its mark on their industrial products even in the humblest departments of handicraft.

**11. Divisions.**—Before the Revolution France was divided into governments which corresponded generally to old feudal territories. In 1790 the ancient divisions were officially done away with, and their place was taken by departments, which received their names from the more prominent natural features of the country. France now includes eighty-seven departments. They are sub-divided into “arrondissements,” and these again into “communes.” Over every department is a prefect, over every “arrondissement” a sub-prefect, over every “commune” a mayor. No authority stands between the prefects and the central Government.

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**12. Government.**—The Legislature consists of two Chambers—the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate. The former is elected by universal suffrage, the latter by a body composed chiefly of delegates appointed by the communes and municipalities. At the head of the executive is the President of the Republic, who is chosen by the two Chambers acting together as a National Assembly. He nominates the Ministers, who remain in office until an important vote is recorded against them by a majority of the Chamber of Deputies.

In the war with Germany in 1870-71 France sustained so many disasters that she has since spared no effort or cost necessary for the development of her military system. The army consists of the active army and the reserve, the territorial army and the territorial reserve. All Frenchmen, from the age of twenty to that of forty, are liable to be called to service. In 1889 the active army was composed of 541,365 men; but it is calculated that, by means of the reserves and of men who, although no longer in the reserves, have received a military training, France could bring into the field 3,750,000 soldiers. The navy is also very powerful. In 1889 it had, besides the higher officers, 27,506 warrant officers and men.

**13. Religion and Education.**—At the time of the Reformation Protestantism made rapid progress in France, but it was sternly resisted by successive Governments, with the result that many hundreds of thousands of persons belonging to the most active and intelligent classes were driven from the country. All forms of religion are now tolerated, and religious organisations which have 100,000 adherents have the right to claim a grant from the State. There are 692,800 Protestants, some of whom are connected with the Lutheran, others with the Reformed, Church. The bulk of the population are attached to the Roman Church, which is ruled by seventeen archbishops and sixty-six bishops.

Until recent times popular education was greatly neglected in France. In 1869 no fewer than 20 per cent of the men chosen for the army by conscription could neither read nor write; and 34 per cent of the persons

married in 1866 were unable to sign the marriage contract. The Republic has striven to amend this state of things, and now there are public elementary schools all over the country, and primary education is compulsory and gratuitous. For secondary education provision is made in lycées, communal colleges, and schools for girls ; and there are many institutions for technical instruction. The Sorbonne, in Paris, is the only French university in the sense in which the word is used in other countries. The highest departments of education are entrusted to "faculties"—that is, institutions in each of which one group of subjects is taught. There are fifteen faculties of literature and as many of the sciences, thirteen of law, and six of medicine.

**14. Industry and Trade.**—No country in Europe has a larger proportion of fertile soil than France. The chief crops are wheat and oats. Much land is also devoted to the growth of the vine and of beetroot, and there are many great gardens and orchards. Immense quantities of wine are produced, the chief kinds being those that come from Champagne, Burgundy, and the neighbourhood of Bordeaux. From time immemorial the soil has been cultivated by a large class of peasants, who, until the Revolution, were ground down by taxes and by exhausting and vexatious services to their lords. The Revolution delivered them from these burdens, and made them the owners of the land they tilled. The peasantry are comparatively prosperous ; but the tendency of the rural population is to decrease, while the population of towns increases.

France shares the coal-bed which passes from the country around Aachen, through Belgium, to the neighbourhood of Calais. Coal is also found at Creuzot, south of the Côte d'Or ; and around St. Etienne, in the district covered by the mountains of Lyonnais. The coal-mines of the country do not, however, supply enough of coal for its manufacturing and other needs. Iron ore is produced in the basin of the Moselle, and to a smaller extent near Creuzot. Salt is mined in some parts of the Pyrenees, and is also obtained from salt-pans on the coasts ; and

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fine clays for porcelain are procured in districts near Limoges.

French manufactured goods rank high among industrial products, being famous both for the thoroughness and the beauty of their workmanship. This is especially true of French silk, pottery, porcelain, and glass. Among other commodities produced in great quantities in France are cotton, woollen, and linen fabrics, jute, sugar, paper, and leather. Most of the chief seats of manufacture are naturally in or near the districts where coal is obtained. Silk is made principally in Lyons, St. Etienne, Nîmes, Tours, and Paris. Cotton, woollen, and linen stoffs are woven in various northern towns, and there are great porcelain factories at Sèvres and Limoges. The greatest ironworks are at Creuzot and St. Etienne.

The position of France, her fine natural harbours, and her numerous rivers give her many advantages for trade; and the value of these conditions has been largely increased by an elaborate system of canals, by excellent roads, by a network of railways which bring all the chief centres of industry into communication with one another and with the sea. The result is that France has not only a flourishing home trade, but that her foreign commerce, next to that of England, is the most important in Europe. The country to which she sends most exports, and from which she receives most imports, is Great Britain. Among other countries with which a large trade is carried on are Belgium, Spain, Germany, Italy, the United States, the Argentine Republic, British India, and Russia.

**15. Paris.**—Although the governments into which France was divided before the Revolution no longer exist in an official sense, they have never been forgotten by the people, and a knowledge of them is essential to the appreciation of French history. It is more useful, therefore, to remember them than to remember the names of the existing departments.

The most important of all the old governments was **Paris**, which included the town and its immediate neighbourhood. Paris is situated on the banks of the Seine below the point at which that river is joined by the

Marne. Not very far from the junction of the two rivers are two islands, on the largest of which, before the conquest of Gaul by the Romans, there was a settlement of a Gallic tribe called the *Parisii*. This was named by the Romans *Lutetia Parisiorum*. It was not very prominent in the time either of the Romans or of the Franks; but as the capital of the Duchy of France, and afterwards of the growing kingdom, Paris gradually became more and more important, spreading out on both banks of the Seine. In the twelfth century it was surrounded by Philip Augustus with towers connected by strong walls, and even then the various parts of Paris were distinguished from one another as they are now. The ancient settlement on the island was known as "*La Cité*," the portion of the town on the right bank of the Seine as "*La Ville*," and that on the left bank as "*Le Quartier Latin*," so called because this was the seat of the University, the most famous mediæval institution of the kind in Europe. In course of time the town was farther extended, and in the fifteenth century new walls were built by Charles V. These were taken down, and the trenches filled up, by Louis XIV, who put in their place, and adorned with trees, handsome streets called Boulevards, which are still among the finest thoroughfares of Paris. From this time the French capital has steadily increased in size, and now it has a population of 2,344,550. It is strongly fortified. During the reign of Napoleon III great architectural changes were made, and Paris has since been famous, even more than in former times, for its general aspect of material prosperity, brightness, and gaiety.

Through the town flows the Seine, which is crossed by many bridges, while along the banks beautiful quays have been built. Among the buildings on the island called "*La Cité*" are the fine Gothic cathedral, Notre Dame; the Palais de Justice, the towers of which formed part of the ancient building where the kings of France usually resided until the fifteenth century; and the beautiful Sainte Chapelle, built in the time of St. Louis. Opposite the island, on the right bank, is the Hôtel de

Ville, which was built in 1872, the former edifice having been destroyed during the fight between the Commune and the Republic in 1871. Farther down the river, on the same side, is the Louvre, a palace founded by Francis I. It contains a splendid collection of works of art. Formerly it was connected with the Tuileries, a palace founded by Catharine de Medici, and destroyed in 1871. Near the Louvre is the Palais Royal, built by Cardinal Richelieu, and afterwards occupied by princes of the

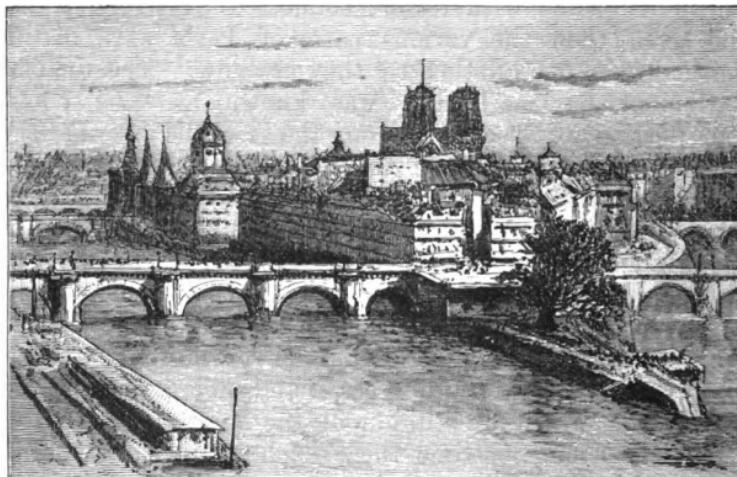


FIG. 13.—NOTRE DAME, PARIS.

house of Orleans. The Bibliothèque National, close to the Palais Royal, contains about 3,000,000 books and 150,000 MSS., the most magnificent collections in the world. Opposite the garden of the Tuileries is the Place de la Concorde, a spacious square, in the centre of which is an ancient obelisk from the Temple of Thebes. Here Louis XVI, Marie Antoinette, and many another were executed at the time of the Revolution. This square opens into the Avenue des Champs Elysées, which leads to a great triumphal arch (Arc de Triomphe de l'Etoile), founded by Napoleon I. in commemoration of his victories. Among the buildings on the left bank of the Seine are

the Palais du Luxembourg, in which there is a gallery of modern pictures ; the Hôtel des Invalides, under the dome of which is the tomb of Napoleon I. ; the home of the Institute of France, a famous institution, consisting of five academies ; the palace of the Chamber of Deputies ; the Sorbonne ; and the Collège de France.

Through Havre, with which it is connected by the Seine, Paris has ready access to the sea. With the eastern districts of France it is brought into contact by the Upper Seine, the Marne, and the Oise ; and with the southern and western districts by the Loire, from the most northerly part of which it is not far distant. These conditions, which are made still more favourable by canals and railways, enable Paris to carry on an extensive home and foreign trade, which is fed by many prosperous industries. Among the industrial products of Paris are jewellery, works in bronze, porcelain, tapestry, and other things which depend for their value chiefly on the artistic skill with which they are designed and executed.

As the seat of the Government, as the chief home of French art, science, and literature, and as a great centre of commerce, Paris has for centuries exercised a powerful influence over the rest of France. It attracts nearly all that is most active and ambitious in the intellectual talent of the country, and no other city in the world is visited by so large a number of foreigners.

Near Paris are various small towns and villages whose history is intimately associated with that of the capital. Among these are VERSAILLES, with a vast palace built by Louis XIV ; ST. GERMAIN-EN-LAYE, with a palace once occupied by French kings, but now used as a museum of antiquities ; ST. CLOUD, where a beautiful castle was destroyed during the siege of Paris in 1870 ; SÈVRES, famous for its pottery and porcelain ; and ST. DENIS, with an old abbey which was the burying place of the kings of France.

**16. The Isle of France.**—The central part of the basin of the Seine is known as the *Isle of France*. It was in ancient times included in the Duchy of France. A special interest attaches to it because, in the centuries

following the accession of Hugh Capet, it was the centre around which the French kingdom was formed. Among its chief towns are COMPIÈGNE, with a castle built on the site of a fortress erected by King Clovis; SOISSONS, one of the residences of the Merovingian kings; LAON, the only town held by the last representative of the Carolingian dynasty. BEAUVAIIS, an important manufacturing town, has an unfinished cathedral with a splendid choir. MELUN, built partly on an island in the Seine, was made famous in the twelfth century by the school of Abelard. FONTAINEBLEAU is well known on account of its palace and forest.

17. **Champagne**.—*Champagne*, as the name implies, consists chiefly of plains; but in the north it includes the Argonnes and a part of the Ardennes. Through it flow the Upper Seine, the Aube, and parts of the Marne, the Aisne, and the Meuse. The central districts are comparatively barren, but those in the west have fine vineyards, from which the various wines called champagne are produced. The chief town is RHEIMS (pop. 97,903), on the Vesle, a tributary of the Aisne. In its cathedral, from the twelfth century, the French sovereigns, with few exceptions, were crowned. Rheims has a great wine trade and woollen manufactures. It is built on the site of the ancient *Durocortorum*, the capital of the tribe called the *Remi*. EPERNAY, on the Marne, is one of the centres of the trade in champagne. CHALONS-SUR-MARNE, where also the wine trade is carried on, represents the ancient *Catalaunum*, and has many beautiful churches. TROYES (pop. 46,972) is a picturesque town on the Seine, with a great cathedral. Between Troyes and Châlons-sur-Marne was fought, in 451, the famous battle in which the Huns under Attila were defeated by the Romans and their Teutonic allies. Near BAR-SUR-AUBE is Clairvaux (*Clara Vallis*), where was the Cistercian Abbey founded in 1114 by St. Bernard. LANGRES, at the sources of the Marne, is built on the site of a town which was in the time of Caesar the capital of the *Lingones*. It has a cathedral, and is said to have been a bishop's see since the third century. In the

cathedral of MEAUX, on the Marne, Bossuet is buried; and that of SENS, on the Seine, is famous for the beauty of its structure and its fine stained glass windows. SÉDAN, on the Meuse, where Turenne was born, is the town beside which the decisive battle in the war of 1870 was fought.

**18. Picardy, Artois, and Flanders.**—North of the Isle of France are *Picardy*, *Artois*, and *Flanders*. They occupy a flat and fertile country, and the people, like their Flemish neighbours of Belgium, are distinguished by their vigour and steadiness of character. The chief town in *Picardy* is AMIENS (pop. 80,288), on the Somme. It is strongly fortified, and has great manufactures of wool, cotton, and velvet. The cathedral of Amiens is one of the finest Gothic buildings in France. BOULOGNE (pop. 45,916), on the coast, is a flourishing fishing town and watering-place. It is also important because of its position on one of the chief routes between France and England. CALAIS (pop. 58,969) lies on another of these routes. It was captured by Edward III, and held by England until 1558. It has great fortifications and a valuable trade. CRECY and AGINCOURT are famous in history because of great battles fought near them between the French and the English. ST. QUENTIN (pop. 47,353) has a beautiful church with the relics of St. Quintin. Near it, in 1557, was fought a battle between the French and the Spaniards. The town produces muslin, gauze, and lace.

The chief towns in *Artois* are ARRAS and ST. OMER, each of which has a beautiful cathedral. In Arras fine tapestry and lace are made.

*Flanders* is occupied by two distinct groups of inhabitants, one of which speaks French, the other Flemish. Its supplies of coal have rendered possible the growth of great manufactures, so that it has become one of the richest and most densely populated districts in France. LILLE (pop. 188,272), on a canal uniting the Scarpe and the Lys, lies in the midst of a fertile region producing great quantities of melons, asparagus, flowers, and beetroot. It has manufactures of linen and lace. Its town hall dates from the thirteenth century, and there is a citadel built by Vauban. The

fortifications are elaborate and strong. DUNKIRK (pop. 38,025) is an important trading station. The name is a corruption of the Flemish *Dunkerken*—that is, the Church (*kirk*) in the Dunes. ROUBAIX (pop. 100,299), TOURCOING (pop. 58,008), and DOUAI (pop. 30,030) are busy centres of various kinds of manufacturing industry. VALENCIENNES makes fine lace; and CAMBRAI (where Fénélon was archbishop) gives its name to the fabric known as cambric. At MALPLAQUET a battle was fought in 1709.

**19. Normandy.**—*Normandy* takes in the basin of the lower Seine, the peninsula of Cotentin, and the north-eastern part of the mountain system of Brittany. It derives its name from the Northmen by whom it was won in the ninth and tenth centuries, and through William the Conqueror and his descendants it was intimately associated with the mediæval history of England. The soil is remarkably fertile, and Normandy is famous for its grain and for the fine quality of its apples and pears. It includes many picturesque districts, with feudal castles; and lovers of architecture find an inexhaustible source of interest in the churches of its quaint old towns. The people, to a large extent descended from the ancient Scandinavian settlers, are as vigorous in trade and industry as their ancestors were in war. The chief town is ROUEN (pop. 107,163), on the Seine, with an ancient cathedral and other beautiful churches. Among the monuments of the town is a statue of the Maid of Orleans, whom the English burned there as a witch in 1431. Rouen is an important centre of trade, and has great cotton and woollen manufactures. At the mouth of the Seine is HAVRE (pop. 112,074), the port for most of the foreign trade of northern France. It was founded by Francis I. DIEPPE, famous for its oyster fisheries, and much frequented as a watering-place, lies on one of the routes between France and England. TROUVILLE is another well-known Norman watering-place. CHERBOURG (pop. 36,878) is a great naval station, which has been fortified at a vast expense. COUTANCES has a magnificent cathedral. CAEN (pop. 43,809), on the Orne, has a special interest for Englishmen, because in St. Stephen's church is

the grave of William the Conqueror. At **FALAISE** is the castle in which he was born. **BAYEUX**, with a great cathedral, is also specially interesting to Englishmen because of the Bayeux tapestry. On the Iton, a feeder of the Eure, is the pleasant old town **EVREUX**, with a cathedral and other ancient buildings; and, on the Eure, **IVRY**, where Henry IV won his decisive victory in 1590.

**20. Brittany.**—*Brittany* occupies the north-western peninsula of France, including the district on both sides of the mouth of the Loire. It is a hilly country, with fine cliffs and bays; and in no region of like extent in Europe are there so many great monuments of prehistoric times. The people—a large proportion of whom, as already stated, speak a dialect of the old Keltic language—have always, since the time of Roman supremacy, been more or less isolated from the other inhabitants of France. They are brave and generous, passionately devoted to their native province, and loth to depart in any way from ancient customs and traditions. The most important town is **NANTES** (pop. 127,482), on the right bank of the Loire, into which, at this point, flow the Erdre and the Sèvre Nantaise. Nantes has a beautiful cathedral and an ancient castle, and there are fine promenades along the banks of its rivers, which are crossed by numerous bridges. Here the Edict called the Edict of Nantes, granting liberty of worship to French Protestants, was proclaimed in 1598 by Henry IV. The town has many flourishing manufactures, and the craft of all kinds and sizes on the Loire bear testimony to the extent of its commerce. **BREST** (pop. 70,778), on the northern side of a spacious bay, is an important naval station, and has great shipbuilding yards. **ST. MALO**, a town on an island off the northern coast, is connected with the mainland by an embankment. **RENNES**, (pop. 66,139), on the Ille and Vilaine, is famous for its butter and linen; and a canal brings it into intimate relation with St. Malo. **VANNES** has important sardine fisheries. At **CARNAC**, near the Bay of Quiberon, are thousands of great monoliths arranged in long lines. We do not know either the origin or the meaning of these strange monuments.

**21. Maine.**—*Maine* is the district through which flow the rivers Mayenne and Sarthe. It produces flax and hemp, and has many towns in which the linen trade is carried on. Among them are LE MANS (pop. 37,591), on the Sarthe, with a fine cathedral; LAVAL, on the Mayenne; and MORTAGNE, near which, in a desolate hill country, is the famous abbey of **La Trappe**.

**22. Anjou.**—*Anjou* lies on both sides of the Loire, but its chief towns are in the district north of that river. In the

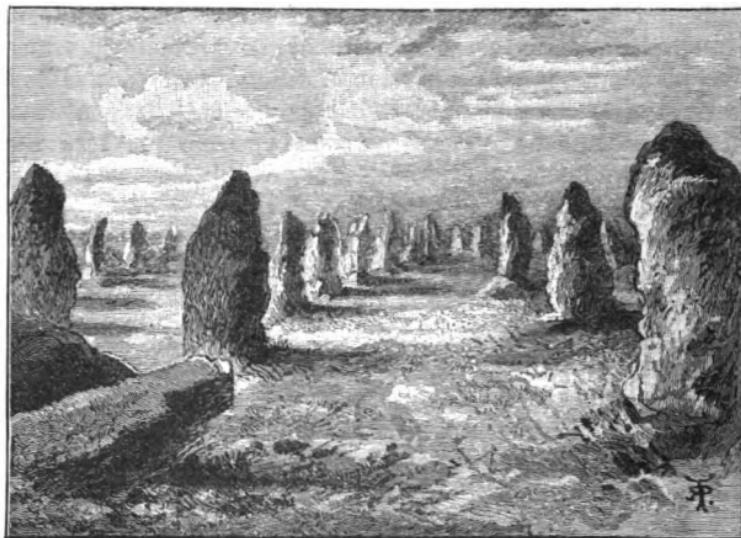


FIG. 14.—CARNAC.

twelfth century it was the centre of a vast feudal territory, and gave to England its Angevin or Plantagenet line of kings. ANGERS (pop. 73,044), on the Maine, is an important industrial and trading town, and near it are great slate-quarries. It was called in Roman times *Andegavum*. It has an old basilica, and on a rock above the river is a castle built by St. Louis. CHOLET and CHÂTEAU-GONTIER are centres of the linen trade.

**23. Touraine.**—*Touraine*, also lying on both sides of the Loire, and including the points at which the Loire receives the Indre and the Cher, is so fertile a district that

it is called the Garden of France. Its chief town is TOURS (pop. 59,585), between the Loire and the Cher. Tours was called by the Romans *Cesarodunum*. In the fourth century it was the home of St. Martin, to whose shrine pilgrimages were made for centuries afterwards. It has a great cathedral, and some remains of the church built by St. Martin. The first mulberry-trees known in France were planted here by Henry IV, and Tours was for a long time the



FIG. 15.—AMBOISE.

headquarters of the French silk industry. Its trade was almost destroyed by the emigration of Protestants at the time of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. It now produces, among other things, silk, pottery, and stained glass. Near Tours is Plessis-les-Tours, the favourite castle of Louis XI. AMBOISE has a magnificent castle, in which Charles VIII was born and died.

**24. Orléannais.**—*Orléannais*, on both sides of the middle Loire, is one of the most richly cultivated and most populous districts of France. ORLÉANS (pop. 60,876), on the Loire, represents the Roman *Aureliana Civitas*. It has

a cathedral of the seventeenth century, and among its interesting old buildings is the house in which Joan of Arc is said to have been received after the relief of the town in 1429. Orléans manufactures cotton and linen stuffs, leather, and other products, and a great trade is secured for it by its position on the Loire, and by a canal which here connects the Loire and the Seine. BLOIS, on the Loire, has a cathedral and a famous castle, which was associated with some of the most striking events in the history of France during the sixteenth century. VENDÔME, on the Loir, is well known for its gloves. CHARTRES, on the Eure, is an ancient town with a magnificent cathedral, and in the neighbourhood are many prehistoric antiquities.

**25. Berry.**—*Berry* takes in a great part of the valley of the Indre and the Cher. Its chief town is BOURGES (pop. 42,829). This town—representing the ancient *Avaricum*—is almost in the centre of France. It has Roman walls, with many fine mediæval buildings, the most splendid of which is the cathedral. It has woollen industries, and is an important market town for the agricultural produce of Berry. CHATEAUROUX and ISSOUDUN have woollen and other factories.

**26. Nivernais.**—*Nivernais* is a hilly district, descending gradually from the Morvan mountains to the Loire. Its chief town NEVERS, representing the ancient Noviodunum, is built on a hill at the point where the Loire receives the Nièvre. It has an old cathedral, and among its industrial products are porcelain and glass.

**27. Bourbonnais.**—*Bourbonnais* includes a part of the valleys of the Allier and the Cher. On the Allier are MOULINS, a beautifully situated old town, with a cathedral; and VICHY, famous for its baths. MONTLUÇON, on the Cher, is an industrial and trading town, built on a hill.

**28. Lyonnais.**—*Lyonnais* was originally the district around Lyons, but was afterwards extended to include the valley of the upper Loire, with the mountains between the Loire and the Rhone. LYONS (pop. 401,930) is the most important manufacturing town in France, and stands next to Paris with regard to population. It represents the ancient *Lugdunum*, which was a great city in the time of the

Romans. Lyons was united to France in 1363, having for centuries been one of the chief towns of the kingdom of Burgundy. It is built, partly on hills, in a fertile and beautiful district between the Rhône and the Saône, both of which are crossed by numerous bridges. Its fine quays, and the wide streets of the newer part of the town, give it an appearance of great material prosperity. Among the most interesting of its buildings are the cathedral and the Hôtel de Ville. It is surrounded by strong fortifications. Lyons is not very far from coal-beds, which supply it with fuel for its manufactures. It is the centre of the silk industry, and its position on the Saône and the Rhône made it, even before the days of railways, a trading station of vast importance both for the south of France and for Switzerland. ST. ETIENNE (pop. 117,875) also has silk factories, but is famous chiefly for its coal-mines and iron works. ROANNE is a trading town at the point where the Loire becomes navigable.

**29. Auvergne.**—*Auvergne* consists chiefly of a high table-land covered with volcanic cones and great beds of lava. The people are industrious, and of an honest and simple type of character. Many of them eke out their scanty means of living by working during the harvest in the fertile valleys of the neighbouring districts. CLERMONT-FERRAND (pop. 46,718) consists of Clermont and the small town Montferrand, which are connected by an avenue of trees. Clermont is built on an elevation between the Allier and the Bedat, and in the background is a series of magnificent extinct volcanoes, including the Puy de Dôme. It has several industries, and through it passes much of the traffic between Paris and the southern districts of France. It was the birthplace of Gregory of Tours and Pascal. Its most remarkable building is the cathedral. South of Clermont, on a height near the village Romagnan, was the old Gallic fortress **Gergovia**. THIERS, in the fertile plain called Limagne, is an industrial town, famous for its knives. AURILLAC, on the Jourdanne, produces, among other things, lace, jewellery, and paper.

**30. Limousin.**—*Limousin* and *La Marche* consist to a large extent of terraces descending from the table-land

of Auvergne ; the upper Vienne flowing through the former, the upper Creuse through the latter. The chief town in Limousin is **LIMOGES** (pop. 68,477), on the Vienne, celebrated for its porcelain, and famous in the history of art for its beautiful enamels. **TULLE**, at the junction of the Corrèze and the Solane, has factories for the kind of fine net to which it gives its name.

**31. Poitou and Saumur.**—*Poitou* and *Saumur* occupy the district from the Creuse and the Vienne to the Bay of Biscay. In *Upper Poitou* is **POITIERS**, formerly Poictiers, from *Pictavium*, the name given to the chief town of a Gallic tribe called the *Pictavi*. It has the remains of a Roman amphitheatre and aqueduct ; in the neighbourhood are various prehistoric monuments ; and there are fine mediæval churches, the chief being the cathedral in which Richard Cœur de Lion was buried. The town is built on an elevation rising between the valleys of the Clain and the Boivre. In the district between Poitiers and Tours several great battles have been fought—one between Clovis and the West Goths in 507 ; another between Charles Martel and the Saracens in 732 ; a third between the French and the English in 1356. Other towns are **NIORT**, on the Sèvre Niortaise, with manufactures ; **CHÂTELLERAULT**, on the Vienne, with steel works ; **SAUMUR**, a picturesque town on the Loire. *Lower Poitou*, called *La Vendée*, consists of a marshy district along the coast, a fertile plain in the centre and in the south, and a region of plantations (*le Bocage*) in the north. The district is famous in connection with the wars of *La Vendée*. The chief town is **LA ROCHE-SUR-YON**.

*Noirmoutier*, one of the islands off the coast, has extensive oyster fisheries.

**32. Saintonge, Angoumais, and Aunis.**—*Saintonge*, *Angoumais*, and *Aunis* are the districts included in the basin of the river Charente. Among the towns of *Saintonge* are **SAINTES**, with Roman remains ; and **ST. JEAN D'ANGÉLY**, famous as a place of refuge for the Huguenots. In *Aunis* are **LA ROCHELLE**, a fortified coast town, also closely connected with the history of the Huguenots ; and **ROCHEFORT** (pop. 31,256), a naval station and trading

town. The islands of *Oléron* and *Ré* produce much sea-salt. The chief town in *Angoumais* is ANGOULÈME, built in terraces on a hill overlooking the Charente. COGNAC, on the Charente, produces the kind of brandy known by its name. It was the birthplace of Francis I.

In these districts—also in Poitou—are many isolated rocks crowned by mediæval castles, around which grew up towns. Hence the number of names beginning with the words "*La Roche*." Besides those already mentioned we may note *La Roche Foucauld*, *La Roche Chouart*, *La Roche Beaucourt*.

33. **Guienne and Gascony.**—*Guienne* and *Gascony* occupy the greater part of the basin of the Garonne, stretching from the Bay of Biscay to the terraces of the Pyrenees and the central table-land. They correspond roughly to the mediæval duchy of Aquitaine. In the west is a flat district called the *Landes*, lying behind the dunes that line the coast. Many parts of this plain are covered by fine sand blown from the shore, but the evil is being remedied by the planting of trees. Great marshes—which make it necessary for shepherds, while watching their flocks, to walk on stilts—are being drained; so that a region which formerly maintained only a small and scattered population is gradually becoming fertile and prosperous.

The chief town in Guienne is BORDEAUX (pop. 240,582), built on a wide and fertile plain between a chain of hills and the Garonne. It represents the ancient *Burdigala*, which was an important Roman town. The river is crossed by a splendid bridge, and there are some beautiful old churches, among which the cathedral is pre-eminent. With access to the Atlantic through the Gironde, and connected with the Mediterranean by the Canal du Midi, Bordeaux has almost necessarily a great trade. It is the chief place of export for the wines produced in the neighbourhood. Among the chief vineyards for red Bordeaux wines (called in England claret) are those of Medoc, Lafitte, Château-Margaux, and Latour. White Bordeaux wines come from Barsac, Pregiac, Sauternes, and other vineyards. Other towns in Guienne are PERIGUEUX, on the river L'Isle, with an old cathedral in the Byzantine

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style; BERGERAC, on the Dordogne, famous for its wine; CAHORS, on the Lot, with Roman remains and a cathedral; RODEZ, on the Aveyron, with a cathedral of great beauty; and MONTAUBAN, on the Tarn, a stronghold of the Huguenots.

*Gascony* is so called from the Vascons or Basques, from whom the majority of the inhabitants are descended, although they now speak French. The Gascons are so fond of indulging in boastful exaggeration that they have given rise to the word “gasconnade.” They are lively, sociable, and industrious, and form an important element in the population of France.

BAYONNE, not far from the shore, at the point where the Nive flows into the Adour, commands the Passes of the western Pyrenees, and is therefore important as a military station. It gives its name to the bayonet, which was invented or first used there. On the coast is the watering-place BIARRITZ, in an isolated position among hills and cliffs. AUCH, on the Gers, with linen and woollen industries, was the ancient capital of Gascony, and has a grand cathedral. TARBES is an industrial town on the Adour. BAGNÈRES DE BIGORRE, on the same river, has many hot springs; and its baths—still largely used—were known to the Romans. Near this town opens the beautiful valley of the upper Adour. LOURDES, on the Gave de Pau, has a shrine of the Virgin to which many Roman Catholics make pilgrimages. High up in the valley of the Gave de Pau are the baths of BAREGES, and, in a still more lofty position, those of CAUTERETS.

**34. Navarre and Béarn.**—*Navarre* and *Béarn* occupy the northern slopes of the western Pyrenees and the terraces descending from them. *Navarre* was originally a part of the Spanish kingdom of the same name. It was detached from the rest of the kingdom in 1512, and afterwards, with *Béarn*, united to France through the accession of Henry IV to the French crown. The inhabitants of both districts are Basques, and for the most part speak the Basque language. The chief place in *Navarre* is the small town ST. JEAN PIED DU PORT, with a citadel commanding the road from the Pass of Roncesvalles. PAU, on the Gave de Pau, in

Béarn, was the birthplace of Henry IV. From it also sprang the present reigning dynasty of Sweden.

35. **Foix.**—*Foix* occupies the valley of the Ariège, on which are its chief towns, **FOIX**, **TARASCON** (with iron-works), and **PAMIERS**, from which there are splendid views of the Pyrenees.

36. **Roussillon.**—*Roussillon* is the district through which the Tet flows from the eastern Pyrenees to the Mediterranean. It has rich valleys, in many of which mulberry-trees are carefully cultivated. Traces of the former connection of the province with Aragon may be seen in the manners of the people, who are in some respects more Spanish than French. The chief town is **PERPIGNAN**, on the Tet, with factories and a trade in wine.

37. **Languedoc.**—*Languedoc* receives its name from the dialect of French spoken in southern France. It is a wide district, stretching along the coast from Roussillon to the Rhone, passing inland beyond the Cevennes, and including a part of the Garonne. The people generally are of a bright and happy temper, and among them, in the middle ages, flourished the joyous poetry of the Troubadours. At the same time they have often come under the influence of deep religious movements. Many of them were enthusiastic Albigenses, and in the sixteenth century Calvinism won resolute adherents in Languedoc.

**TOULOUSE** (pop. 147,617) was the capital of this province. It represents the ancient *Tolosa*, one of the chief Gallic centres of Roman civilisation. It has many fine buildings, the most important of which are the cathedral and the church of St. Sernin, with a lofty octagonal tower. Toulouse has flourishing industries and a great trade. **ALBI**, on the Tarn, is famous for its connection with the Albigenses. Its cathedral is one of the finest in Languedoc. **NARBONNE**, near the Aude, is interesting because of its antiquities. It represents the ancient *Narbo*, which was originally a Greek colony, and flourished under the Romans. **NIMES** (pop. 69,898), representing the ancient *Nemausus*, has a great amphitheatre and other remnants of the Roman world. It is one of the centres of the silk trade. **MONTPELLIER** (pop.

56,765) and BÉZIERS (pop. 42,785) are prosperous industrial and trading towns. Montpellier is also well known for its medical school.

**38. Vivarais.**—*Vivarais* lies between the northern part of the Cevennes and the Rhone. Its capital was VIVIERS. The most populous town is ANNONAY, with paper mills. TOURNON, on the Rhone, is overlooked by a castle from which there are charming views of the Rhone valley.

**39. Provence.**—*Provence*, a district with every variety of beautiful scenery and a pleasant climate, lies between the Rhone, the Durance, and the Mediterranean. Its chief town, MARSEILLES (pop. 376,143), is the greatest seaport of France. It represents the ancient *Massalia*, founded by a Greek colony about 600 B.C. Its fine bay, protected by hills, gives it splendid facilities for commerce, and it is now the centre of the steamship traffic of the Mediterranean. It has many manufacturing industries, the products of which, with sardines and tunnies, olives, wine, and oil, it exchanges for the commodities of different countries, especially those of Algeria. Among other coast towns are TOULON (pop. 70,122), a great naval station; ANTIBES, representing the ancient *Antipolis*, a Greek colony dependent on Massalia; and CANNES, the mild climate of which makes it a favourite winter resort of invalids. ALES, on the Rhone, represents the Roman *Arelate*. It has a great amphitheatre and other Roman antiquities, and an old basilica with a fine portal arch. AIX, now famous for its oil, has mineral springs which led to the building of the Roman city *Aquae Sextiae*. Near this city the Teutons were defeated by Marius in 102 B.C. Aix was for many years the residence of King René, who made it a great power in the world of art and literature.

**40. Nice.**—In what was once the county of *Nice*—ceded to France in 1860—is the town NICE (pop. 77,478), built on hills, at the mouth of the Paglione, overlooking the Mediterranean. It has so fine a climate that the rose, the myrtle, and the laurel bloom all the year round. Visitors crowd to it in winter. It is descended from *Nicæa*, which is said to have been built by a colony from Massalia.

**41. Monaco.**—A few miles beyond Nice lies the in-

dependent principality of MONACO. From the tenth to the eighteenth century this principality was held by the Grimaldi family, to whose founder it was granted by the Emperor Otto. Two of its three communes—Mentone and Roccabruna—after having undergone various fortunes, were sold to the French emperor in 1861, and the prince was recognised as the sovereign of what remained, the town of MONACO with the immediately surrounding territory.

**42. Avignon and Venaissin.**—North of the Durance are the territories which were once known as the counties of *Avignon* and *Venaissin*, both of which belonged to the Papacy from the fourteenth to the end of the eighteenth century. On the eastern and southern slopes of a rocky elevation called the Roque des Doms, on the left bank of the Rhone, stands AVIGNON (pop. 41,007), representing the ancient *Avenio Cavarum*. It is surrounded by walls with massive towers. From 1309 to 1377 the Popes resided in Avignon, and there Petrarch lived for many years, and met Laura. Among the buildings are the cathedral, on the top of the Roque des Doms, and the old Papal palace, now used as barracks. The chief industrial product of Avignon is silk. In *Venaissin* is CARPENTRAS, and not far off is the beautiful valley Vaucluse (*Vallis Clusa*), with a village of the same name overlooked by a castle on a height. Near a spring in this valley, much frequented by travellers, is a lofty pillar, raised in memory of Petrarch.

**43. Orange.**—The small principality of *Orange* was ruled by native princes from the eleventh to the sixteenth century, when it passed by marriage to the House of Nassau, by which it was held until the death of William III, Prince of Orange and King of England. The town ORANGE represents the ancient *Arausio*, and is now remarkable chiefly for its Roman remains, including a fine triumphal arch and a theatre.

**44. Dauphiné.**—*Dauphiné* is a mountainous district, spreading upwards from the Rhone to the Alps, and including the valleys of the Isère and the Drôme. It derives its name from the fact that the feudal lords of the land had a dolphin as their heraldic bearing, and were therefore

called Dauphin. The country formed a part of the kingdom of Burgundy, and was bequeathed in the fourteenth century by its last native ruler to the King of France, on condition that Dauphin should be the title of the heir to the French throne. GRÉNOBLE (pop. 52,484) is a prosperous industrial town on the Isère. In St. Andrew's church is the tomb of Bayard, whose castle is in the neighbourhood. In a high, romantic valley about thirteen miles from Grénoble is La Grande Chartreuse, the head monastery of the Carthusians, founded by St. Bruno in 1084. VALENCE and VIENNE are trading towns on the Rhone. The former has a cathedral with the tomb of Pope Pius VI, who died here in 1799. Vienne has Roman remains which recall the time when it was the rival of Lugdunum.

**45. Savoy.**—*Savoy* is an Alpine land, with many lofty mountains, including Mont Blanc, and great valleys watered by snow-fed streams. The Savoyards are sturdy, honest, and industrious. Many of them go elsewhere to make a living, but return to their native province as soon as they have enough to provide for their wants. The county—afterwards the duchy—of Savoy played an important part in mediæval politics, and the House of Savoy became the first reigning dynasty of United Italy. The capital is CHAMBERY, in a wide valley surrounded by mountains. ANNECY, an industrial town, is the seat of the bishop who in former times ruled his diocese from Geneva. At the source of the Arve is the village of CHAMOUNI, famous as the starting-point for the most splendid scenery in Europe.

**46. Burgundy.**—*Burgundy* is a district including the Côte d'Or, the mountains of Charollais, and parts of the basins of the Saône, the upper Loire, and the upper Seine. It is famous for its wines, which are produced chiefly from vineyards on the slopes of the Côte d'Or. The chief town is DIJON (pop. 60,855), with a great trade in wine. Beaune is a flourishing centre of the same trade. Near Beaune is Citeaux (*Cistertium*), the head monastery of the Cistercians, founded by St. Robert in 1098. AUTUN and CREUZOT are in the midst of a coal-producing country, and at the latter place there are great iron-works.

AUXERRE, on the Yonne, has a cathedral, and near it is FONTENAY (*Fontanetum*), where the Emperor Lothair was defeated by his brothers in 841. CHÂLONS-SUR-SAÔNE is a busy trading town, from which starts the Canal du Centre, connecting the Saône and the Loire. MÂCON, on the Saône, lies among hills on which are fertile vineyards, and north-west of it is Cluny, the site of an abbey which was famous in the ecclesiastical history of the tenth and eleventh centuries. BOURG, between the Saône and the Ain, has great quarries, from which come the best stones used in lithography.

47. **Franche-Comté.**—The *Franche-Comté* or Free County of Burgundy, occupies the north-western slopes of the Jura, with the upper valleys of the Saône, the Doubs, and the Ain. It was a fief of the Holy Roman Empire, but was held by the French Dukes of Burgundy from the fourteenth century, and in the seventeenth was annexed to the Crown of France. The chief town is BESANÇON (pop. 56,511), on the Doubs. It represents the Roman *Besontio*, and has a splendid Roman triumphal arch. The ancient Campus Martius is now a fine promenade called Chamars. The town is famous for its watches, and has a considerable trade. There are iron-works in the neighbourhood. DÔLE, an industrial town on the Doubs, is built in a pretty valley called the Val d'Amours. GRAY, on the Saône, is an industrial town, and an important centre for the distribution of goods received from southern France.

48. **Montbéliard.**—Between Franche-Comté and Alsace lay the county of *Montbéliard* or *Mümpelgard*, which, before the French Revolution, belonged to Würtemberg. The town MONTBÉLIARD produces watches, leather, and woollen fabrics. It was the birthplace of Cuvier, who, as a subject of the Duke of Würtemberg, was educated at Stuttgart.

49. **Belfort.**—Alsace was annexed to France in the course of the seventeenth century, but, with the exception of Belfort and a small surrounding district, was recovered by Germany in 1871. BELFORT is important chiefly because of its strong fortifications.

50. **Lorraine.**—*Lotharingia*, or *Lorraine*, as already

stated, was originally the territory immediately subject to the Emperor Lothair in the ninth century. The name was afterwards limited to the northern part of what had been Lotharingia. Lorraine belonged to Germany from the time of the German King Henry I. It consisted of two duchies —one taking in the table-land pierced by the upper Moselle and the upper Meuse; the other including the territory drained by the lower Meuse. The latter was gradually broken up into a number of small feudal lordships, and the name Lorraine was restricted to the former. The bishoprics of Metz, Verdun, and Toul were seized by the French king, Henry II, in 1552, and the remainder of Lorraine came into the possession of France in 1766. About a fifth part of this territory, including Metz, was taken back by Germany in 1871. NANCY (pop. 79,038), in a pleasant valley near the Meurthe, is an important manufacturing town. Until 1690 it was the residence of the Dukes of Lorraine. LUNÉVILLE and ST. DIÉ, both on the Meurthe, and EPINAL, on the Moselle, carry on various industries; and BAR-LE-DUC, on the Ornain, a tributary of the Marne, has a trade in preserved fruits and wine. At PONT-À-MOUSSON there are Roman remains.

**51. Corsica.**—Corsica, an island of the Mediterranean, separated from Sardinia by the strait of Bonifacio, has an area of 3377 square miles, with a population (in 1886) of 278,501. It consists chiefly of ranges of wild, rugged mountains, culminating in Monte Rotondo (9068 feet high). Their general direction is from south-east to north-west. On the coasts are narrow plains, watered by rapid streams flowing from the mountains. Of these streams the chief are the Golo and the Tavignano on the eastern side of the island, the Liamone on the western. The lower valleys, when properly cultivated, produce abundant cereal crops, and are well adapted for the growth of the vine. On the mountains are magnificent forests of chestnut and other trees. The pines of Corsica are the highest trees in Europe, and are used as masts in the French navy.

The primitive inhabitants were Iberians and Ligurians. They came to some extent under the influence of

the Greeks, the Carthaginians, and the Romans. From the eighth to the eleventh century Corsica was held by the Saracens, from whom it was taken by Pisa. From Pisa, in the thirteenth century, it passed to Genoa. The Corsicans never liked their Genoese masters, and in the eighteenth century, under General Paoli, they carried on for many years a war of independence. In 1768 the island was transferred to France.

The Corsicans speak a corrupt dialect of Italian. They are brave, hospitable, and intensely patriotic ; but passionate and revengeful. They dislike work, and ordinary folk live chiefly on chestnuts. The wines of Corsica are excellent, and there are important tunny and sardine fisheries. BASTIA, on the north-eastern coast, has a good harbour and a considerable trade. AJACCIO, the capital, was the birthplace of Napoleon Bonaparte.

## CHAPTER VI

### THE BRITISH ISLES

AN account of the British Isles having been given in another volume of the present series,<sup>1</sup> it is not necessary to do more here than to indicate their intimate connection with the rest of Europe.

**1. Former Union of Britain with the Continent.—** The British Isles are now separated from the Continent by the North Sea and the English Channel, but they have not always been thus isolated. That they once formed a part of the European mainland may be inferred from the geological structure of many parts of the coast. The chalk cliffs of Kent and Sussex, for example, are exactly like those of the north-eastern seaboard of France, and both belong to the same geological system. In like manner the Oolitic or Jurassic rocks, which stretch south-westward from Yorkshire to Devon, are continued on the opposite French shore, whence they pass inland, covering a great part of France, Switzerland, and southern Germany. Some of the Tertiary strata which are found in southern and eastern parts of England reappear in France, the Low Countries, and Germany; and the Archæan rocks of the Scottish Highlands correspond, as we have already seen, to those which occupy wide districts in Scandinavia, Finland, and various regions of north-eastern Europe.

That the British Isles were continuous with the Continent at no very remote geological era may be also

<sup>1</sup> *An Elementary Geography of the British Isles.* By Archibald Geikie, LL.D., F.R.S.

deduced from a consideration of their existing Flora and Fauna. The plants and animals which, in many abundant and varied types, flourished during the periods that preceded the Ice Age, must have perished if they had not been able to escape to more suitable conditions when the greater part of the land was covered with a vast ice-sheet. Those which are now found in the British Isles must, therefore, have made their way thither after the close of the Ice Age ; and, as the greater number of them cannot have come by sea, there is no alternative for us but to conclude that they came by land.

It may thus be inferred that even down to a time geologically so recent as the close of the Glacial Period the British Isles still formed part of the European Continent. The islands were also joined to one another, and land reached out westward and northward probably to the edge of the sub-marine platform from which they now rise (see Fig. 16). The Baltic was then a fresh-water lake, and the floors of the North Sea and the English Channel were undulating plains. Through the plain between Britain and Scandinavia two great rivers bore northward the waters of the Elbe, the Weser, the Rhine, the Meuse, and the Thames and other British streams. These two rivers must have reached the ocean somewhere to the north-east of what are now the Shetland Islands. The Seine flowed westward to the Atlantic, which it joined at a point considerably to the west of Brittany. Between Ireland and Britain there was a long, deep lake, from which a river proceeded southward past the Scilly Isles ; and another great lake separated what we now call Skye from the Outer Hebrides.

**2. Configuration.**—The present configuration of the British Isles can be understood only when we remember that they were once a part of the Continent. The plain which occupies the centre and the south of England, and the centre of Ireland, is simply a prolongation of the great plain of Russia, North Germany, and the Low Countries ; and as the western part of the Continental plain is bordered on the north by the Highlands of Scandinavia, so the British plain is bordered on the north by the High-

lands of Scotland. The leading features of the north-

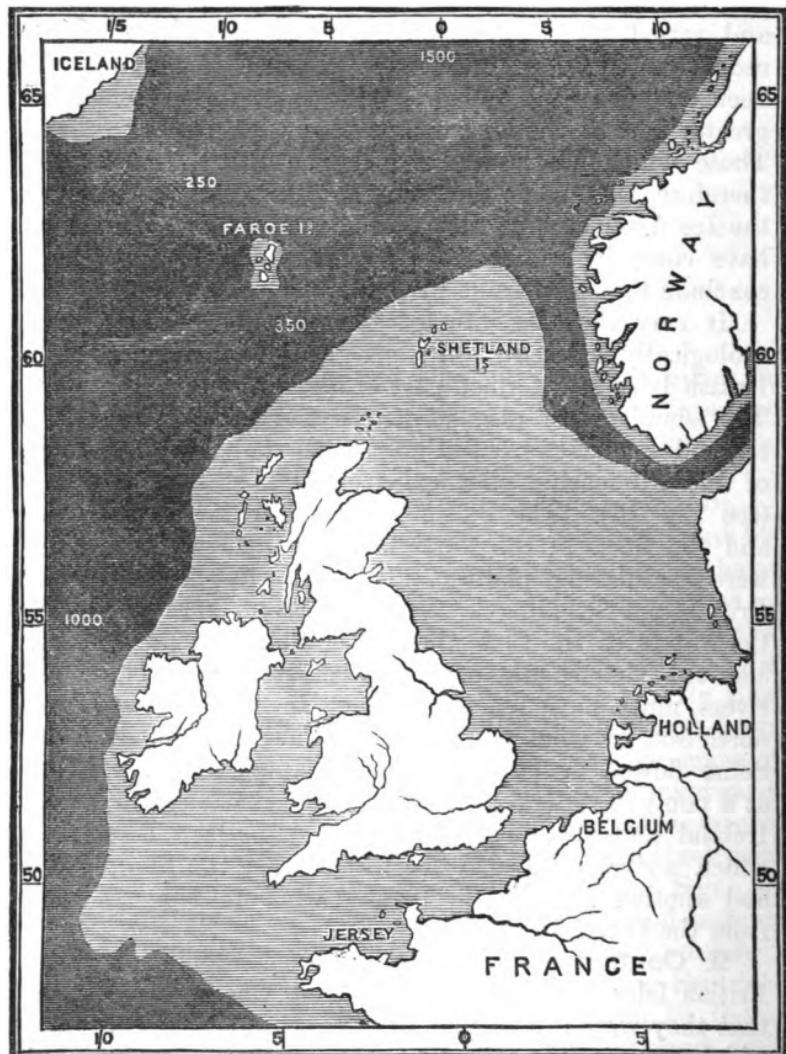


FIG. 16.—The British sub-marine platform. It is represented by the paler shading, which shows an area less than 100 fathoms deep. The darker tint marks sea-bottom more than 100 fathoms deep. The figures indicate the depth in fathoms.

western part of the Continent are thus reproduced, though

on a smaller scale, in the British Isles ; and this can be due to nothing else than to the fact that they were once the north-western extremity of the mainland.

**3. The North Sea and the English Channel.**—The separation of the British Isles from the Continent was probably caused by a general subsidence of north-western Europe. Through the action of subterranean forces this region gradually sank, and the waters of the Atlantic crept in over the lower tracts, so as to form the North Sea and the English Channel. By the same process the sea overflowed the space between Britain and Ireland, and the plateau that stretches about fifty miles to the west of the British Isles. The subsidence, however, did not reach to any great depth. Except to the south-west of Scandinavia, where there is a deep trough, the North Sea nowhere reaches a depth of 600 feet, and in most parts is much shallower. If its bed between Yorkshire and the Low Countries were raised about 120 feet, we should be able to cross to the Continent on foot. The English Channel is generally somewhat deeper than the North Sea, but the depth of the Strait of Dover is not more than 180 feet. If the floors of these seas could be exposed to view, we should see many relics of the time when they were dry land. One of these may be found in the **Dogger Bank**, which occupies a considerable area of the bed of the North Sea between England and Denmark. This shoal seems to be a continuation of the Oolitic and Cretaceous escarpments, which now break off in cliffs on the Yorkshire coast. Currents, proceeding from the Atlantic, sweep through parts both of the English Channel and the North Sea ; and at the points where they meet they have piled up ridges of sand and gravel, between which hollows receive deposits of muddy sediment.

**4. Flora and Fauna.**—During the glacial period the climate was so cold that the only plants which could then flourish were those characteristic of Arctic regions. These, travelling southward from the northern part of Europe, overspread the land. When afterwards the climate gradually became warmer, the vegetation of the temperate zones returned once more from the south, and established

itself in Britain. The Arctic plants, hitherto flourishing down to the sea-level, were now forced to retreat up into the mountains, where—especially in Scotland—some of them may still be found.

Of the temperate Flora which reached the British Isles when they still formed a part of the mainland, the most widely diffused are those of the Germanic type, which came from the great plain in the south-east. Other plants came to southern England and Ireland from what is now France, and in the warm climate of Kerry there are plants which must have been derived from Spain, where they still abound. Numerous plants which grow freely in various parts of Europe opposite the English coasts are not found in Britain ; whence it has been conjectured that they did not arrive at their present habitats until the land-connection between the British Isles and the Continent had been severed.

After the glacial period the British Isles received all their existing wild animals ; and with these came others which are no longer found in Britain and Ireland. The brown bear was a native of Britain until after the time of the Romans, and the beaver is mentioned in the twelfth century as one of the animals of Wales. The wolf was not extirpated in the north of England until the reign of Henry VIII.

**5. Man in the British Isles.**—The close relation of the British Isles to the Continent is seen not less clearly in the facts relating to their human inhabitants than in those relating to their geological structure, their configuration, and the history of their flora and fauna. During the earliest **Stone Age** there were many human settlements in southern Britain. **Palæolithic** implements, in association with the bones of the mammoth and other extinct animals, have been found there in caves and river alluvia ; and they differ in no respect from those which have been discovered in many other parts of Europe. Driven from the north by the cold of the last era of the glacial period, the people of the Palæolithic Age apparently wandered southward in search of more habitable regions. It has been suggested that when the climate became milder they

returned to the north, and that the Eskimo are probably their descendants.

Relics of Neolithic man have been discovered in great numbers in Britain and Ireland ; and some of them have been found in beds of peat among the remains of forests of postglacial times. He appears to have come from the south and south-west, for the long skulls of the earliest Neolithic men in Britain are of the same type as those of the people who occupied the rest of the Atlantic seaboard during the first part of the Neolithic Age. Before this period was ended, the people of another race, with round skulls, also settled in Britain, and mingled with the earlier inhabitants. They are believed to have been of Asiatic origin, and to have reached the north-west through central Europe.

The next invaders of Britain were the Kelts, who belonged to the same branch of the Aryan or Indo-European race as the Kelts of Gaul and Spain. They were divided into two great groups—the Goidels or Gaels and the Brythons or Britons. The Gaels came first, and took possession of the best lands both in Britain and Ireland, subduing and to some extent mingling with the non-Aryan peoples. They were followed by the Britons, by whom they were displaced in the part of Britain which extends northward to the Firths of Forth and Clyde. Beyond these firths, and in Ireland, the Gaels retained supremacy ; and their language is still spoken in some parts of the Scottish Highlands and by a small proportion of the Irish people. The language of the Britons survives in Wales.

Before historic times began, far-reaching changes had taken place in the forms of civilisation which existed in the British Isles. The Neolithic Age was followed by the **Bronze Age**, and that in turn by the **Iron Age**. The relics of each of these periods correspond to the relics of similar periods in other parts of Europe. Weapons and implements like those of the Neolithic Age have, indeed, been found in all parts of the world, and are still used by some savage tribes. Even great stone monuments resembling those of Britain in Neolithic times

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exist over a vast area. Dolmens, for example, like Kitt's Cotty House in Kent, and Wayland's Smithy in Berkshire, are known on the southern coast of the Baltic, in Scandinavia, Denmark, Holland, northern France, all along the seaboard of the Atlantic, on both shores of the Mediterranean, in Palestine, and in India.

The earliest events within the historic era in Britain were those associated with the conquest of the southern part of the island by the Romans. By these great events new racial elements were introduced into the country from the Continent, and the people were brought into relation with a civilisation far ahead of their own. After the departure of the Romans came the Teutonic tribes, by whom the English nation has been built up. The most important of them were the **Angles**, the **Saxons**, and the **Jutes**, all of whom were of Low Dutch origin ; but in the evolution of the national life a great part was also played by **Danish** and **Norse** settlers. Finally, fresh influences were brought by the **Normans**, who, although of Scandinavian blood, had become wholly French in speech, and to a considerable extent French in their habits and modes of thought.

Thus we see that the British Isles have received from the European mainland all the races who have from time to time settled within their borders. Probably every one of these races, from the earliest Neolithic settlers onwards, is represented in the existing population. Through the forces of geography and history, however, a predominant type of national character has been developed in each of the great divisions of the United Kingdom.

The British people have never held aloof from the great historical movements by which their neighbours have been affected. Feudalism and Catholicism, the strongest agencies by which western Europe was controlled during the Middle Ages, were nowhere more potent than in Britain. The Reformation, on the other hand, did not leave on Germany, Holland, and Scandinavia, a more enduring mark than that which it left on England and Scotland. The movements by which the modern world is most deeply stirred are those connected with literature, art, science, industry, and the cause of democracy ; and in all of them

Britain has taken a leading part—in some of them the foremost part. Material, intellectual, and moral influences have continually passed and repassed between the British Isles and the Continent; and the history of neither would be intelligible if that of the other were left out of account.

## CHAPTER VII

### GERMANY

1. THE Germans call their country "Deutschland"—that is, the land of the Dutch. "Deutsch" or "Dutch" is the modern form of "Theotisc" ("Theod," people), which does not seem to have been used until the ninth century. "Germania" was a name adopted by the Romans from the Gauls.

2. **Boundaries.**—GERMANY consists of a number of States united in an Empire. Its northern boundary crosses the Danish peninsula, and stretches westward, along the shore of the North Sea, to the estuary of the Ems; eastward, along the shore of the Baltic, a little way beyond the Curisches Haff. In the south, south-west, and south-east Germany is separated from its neighbours by ranges of mountains; but east and west its frontiers are for the most part artificial.

3. **Mountains.**—Speaking generally, we may say that the southern part of Germany consists of high grounds; its northern part, of lowlands. The Jura Mountains, which divide Switzerland from France, advance through western Switzerland in a north-easterly direction to the Rhine. Beyond this river the range reappears in Germany as the Swabian and Franconian Jura, maintaining its general north-easterly direction. It consists of barren limestone hills, and is so rugged that in Würtemberg it is known as the **Rauhe Alp**. These hills form the north-western boundary of the Swabo-Bavarian plateau, which continues the table-land of Switzerland, and is itself continued by a lower table-land

west and north-west of the Jura. South of the Danube, the Swabo-Bavarian plateau has an average height of about 1600 feet, and much of it consists of morasses. On its southern border rise the Bavarian Alps, which culminate in the *Zugspitz* (9750 feet), and include many peaks ranging from 4000 to 8000 feet high.

West of the Swabian Jura rises the **Schwarzwald** or Black Forest. This range stretches north and south for a distance of about 87 miles. In the east it fades gradually into the table-land of Würtemberg, but in the west it looks out boldly over the valley of the Rhine. It is divided into the upper and the lower Schwarzwald by the valley of the Kinzig, the upper part consisting chiefly of gneiss and granite; the lower, of new red sandstone. The greatest heights are in the upper Schwarzwald, which culminates in the Feldberg (4904 feet). Beyond Pforzheim, where there is a wide opening, the range is continued in a line of lower hills to the Neckar, beyond which rise the pleasant, well-wooded heights of the Odenwald.

Opposite the Schwarzwald, and separated from it by the valley of the Rhine, are the **Vosges** Mountains, called now by the Germans the Wasgau and in former times the Wasgenwald. Both in composition and in form these mountains correspond closely to the Schwarzwald, with which they seem at one time to have been connected. The loftiest heights of both are covered with dark pine woods; in their higher valleys there are many small, picturesque lakes; and their lower valleys are remarkably fertile. The chief hills of the Vosges, like those of the Schwarzwald, are in the south, and from their rounded forms they are known as "Ballons" or "Belchen." They begin with the Ballon d'Alsace, and culminate in the Sulzer Belchen (4700 feet). The upper Vosges extend to a depression between St. Dié and Schlettstadt, nearly opposite the valley of the Kinzig; the middle Vosges to a depression between Saarburg and Zabern, corresponding to the opening at Pforzheim, one of the main lines of communication between southern Germany and France. The lower Vosges are continued northward by the less elevated but wide and massive Haardt Mountains, which end with the

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depression of Kaiserslautern, opposite the point where the Neckar forces its way through the eastern line of hills. North of the Haardt Mountains a range of hills, including Donners Berg, advances to the Rhine at Mainz and Bingen.

North-east of the Swabo-Bavarian plateau rises a group of mountains called the **Fichtelgebirge**, culminating in the Schneeberg (3480 feet) and the Ochsenkopf (3378 feet). These mountains are surrounded by depressions, from which several ranges extend in various directions. The **Bohemian Forest** advances in a south-easterly direction towards the valley of the Danube. It consists of several parallel chains, and its heights, some of which have an elevation of more than 4500 feet, are covered with pine woods. The **Erzgebirge** (Ore Mountains) forming an angle with the Bohemian Forest, stretch from the Fichtelgebirge towards the north-east. They have no heights reaching 4000 feet, but are remarkable for their wild jagged forms, and for the rich ores from which they derive their name. The **Riesengebirge** (Giants' Mountains), forming an angle with the Erzgebirge, have peaks which rise above the height of 5000 feet. They strike towards the south-east, where they are connected with the Sudetic mountains.

North of the Fichtelgebirge is the **Frankenwald**, which advances northward in a series of terraces towards the **Harz Mountains**. The **Thuringian Forest**, with which the Frankenwald is connected, stretches north-westward to the valley of the Werra. It culminates in the Beerberg (3225 feet). Its hills have gentle slopes, and are finely wooded ; and in many cases they are parted by wide, fertile valleys. South of the Thuringian Forest is the bare, swampy table-land called the **Rhöngebirge**, about 2000 feet high. In the west its hills are parted by the Fulda from the **Vogelsgebirge**, a volcanic region culminating in the Vogelsberg (2400 feet), said to be the greatest mass of basalt in the world. This is a cold, rather desolate table-land, but with woods of beech, fir, and other trees, on some of its hills. South of the Vogelsgebirge is the **Spessart** or **Spechtswald**, which, although the Geiersberg, its loftiest

hill, is only 2095 feet high, has many steep ridges, sharp cones, and deep valleys. It is covered with dense woods of beech and oak trees. West of the Vogelagebirge, between the Main and the Lahn, the Taunus Mountains stretch towards the Rhine, on the opposite side of which, between the Nahe and the Moselle, they are continued in the Hunsrück. The Taunus culminates in the Great Feldberg (2773 feet), from the top of which there is a splendid view of the surrounding country. The hills of the Taunus are beautifully rounded, and famous for their forests, and for their mineral springs. Between the Lahn and the Sieg are the hills of the Westerwald, at the north-western extremity of which, opposite Bonn, are the fine volcanic hills known as the **Siebengebirge**—so called because seven peaks are especially prominent. North of the Sieg extends the hilly district of the Sauerland or Süderland. On the left bank of the Rhine, north of the Moselle, and opposite the Westerwald, are the **Eifelgebirge**, a volcanic range in some of whose craters lakes have been formed.

The **Harz Mountains** are an isolated range, separated from the Thuringian Forest by the valley of the Unstrut, and rising in the hilly district between the Saale and the Leine. The range has a general direction from south-east to north-west, and is about 50 miles long and 16 miles broad. It consists of table-lands of Silurian and Devonian rocks, bordered by hills of granite and porphyry. These hills culminate in the **Brocken** or Blocksberg (3740 feet), famous for the wild legends connected with it, some of which have come down from Pagan times. The Harz Mountains have several remarkably beautiful valleys and waterfalls. In the west and north-west the range sinks gradually towards the Leine, but in the north-east it presents a steep front to the northern plain. The summits of the hills are bare and desolate, but lower down there are forests of pine and beech trees. The range is rich in ores of iron and silver, which have been worked for many centuries.

**4. The Great Plain.**—The northern part of Germany belongs to the plain which, beginning at the coasts of

Belgium and Holland, advances eastward, taking in the whole of Russia. In Germany this plain is divided by the Elbe into a western and an eastern part. Between the Ems and the Weser the western lowlands are crossed from south-east to north-west by two parallel sandstone ridges, the most important of which is called the **Teutoburg Forest**; but generally this district rises little above sea-level, the surface being raised mainly by gentle undulations. There are many tracts of moorland, which have been in part reclaimed for cultivation. The seaboard is low and sandy, and broken by the estuaries of the Ems, the Weser, and the Elbe, and by Jahde Bay. The sea has separated from the coast a long chain of islands, extending from the peninsula of Holland to Jutland. These islands are divided into two groups, the *Frisian* and the *North Frisian*, the latter lying off the coast of Schleswig. Between these groups is Heligoland, a small island which belonged to England from 1814 to 1890, but has now been transferred to Germany. Some of the Frisian Islands are much frequented in summer; and one of them, Norderney, has been made famous by a series of fine poems by Heine.

The eastern lowlands are less flat than those of the west. They are crossed by the **Ural-Baltic** and **Ural-Carpathian** ridges, and at the coast rise in some places more than 500 feet above the Baltic. Here the land tends to gain upon the sea, but at various periods considerable districts have been lost through subsidence. It was subsidence that led to the separation of the island of Rügen from the mainland, and to the formation of the Frisches Haff, and probably also of the Curisches Haff and the Stettin Haff. These are lagoons nearly separated from the sea by long, narrow spits of land called *Nehrungen*.

**5. Lakes.**—Of the German lakes the largest is the Lake of Constance, or the Bodensee, which lies partly in Switzerland. Among the Bavarian Alps there is a group of small, exquisitely beautiful lakes, such as Lake Tegern and the Königssee. A little farther north are the larger but less interesting lakes Anner, Würm, and Chiem. In the eastern part of the northern plain, near the Baltic,

there are scores of shallow lakes, the largest being Lakes Müritz and Schwerin in Mecklenburg.

**6. Rivers.**—The general slope of the country is from south-east to north-west, and this is the general direction of all the main rivers, with the exception of the Danube.

The Danube is a German river only along a part of its upper course. It rises on the eastern slope of the Black Forest, and enters Austria at Passau. It is navigable for steamers from Regensburg, and for small vessels from Ulm. The Swabo-Bavarian plateau has been deeply furrowed by tributaries of the Danube, the chief of which on the right bank are the *Iller*, the *Lech*, the *Isar*, and the *Inn*. On the left bank the Danube receives from the Rauhe Alp the *Lauter*, the *Blau*, and the *Brenz*; from uplands north-west of the Franconian Jura, the *Woernitz* and the *Altmühl*; from the Fichtelgebirge the *Naab*, and from the Bohemian Forest the *Regen*.

The most important German river is the Rhine. It rises on St. Gothard, and, after passing through the Lake of Constance, skirts the southern border of Germany. Here it has a westerly direction, but at Basel it sweeps round, and flows northward through a long and fertile valley between the Schwarzwald and the Vosges. At Mainz it turns again to the west, with the fine slopes of the Taunus on its right bank; but at Bingen it takes a north-westerly direction, which it maintains until it reaches the North Sea. From Bingen to Bonn the Rhine flows through a defile, presenting aspects of extraordinary variety and beauty, and deriving an added charm from the ruins of innumerable castles which were once the homes and fortresses of robber barons. The river is navigable by steamers to Mannheim, and by smaller craft all the way up to the German border. It is a great highway of commerce, and many towns have grown up on its banks.

Among the chief tributaries of the Rhine, on the right bank, are the *Neckar* and the *Main*, with its affluent the *Regnitz*; the former rising on the Swabian Jura, the latter on the Fichtelgebirge. Both rivers flow through a hilly and picturesque country. North of the *Main* are the *Lahn*, the *Sieg*, the *Ruhr*, and the *Lippe*. The chief

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tributary on the left bank is the *Moselle*, which rises on the western slope of the Vosges, and enters Germany above Metz. It is a remarkably beautiful river, but has too tortuous a course to be of much service for navigation. Other affluents on the left bank are the *Nahe* and the *Ahr*. The *Roer* flows into the *Meuse*.

East of the Rhine are the *Eims*, which flows from the south-eastern slope of the Teutoburg Forest, and the *Weser*, formed by the union of the *Fulda* and the *Werra*. In its upper course the Weser passes through a hilly country; it reaches low ground at Minden, where it penetrates the ridge parallel to the Teutoburg Forest. The *Elbe* rises in Bohemia, on the Riesengebirge, and enters Germany at the point where it pierces the Erzgebirge. Along the whole of its course in Germany the Elbe is navigable. Its chief tributaries are, on the left bank, the *Saale*, with its affluents the *Unstrut* and the *Elster*; on the right, the *Havel*, with its affluent the *Spree*. The *Oder*, rising on the Sudetic range, is a German river along its entire course. It is shallow and rapid, and much money has been spent to make it navigable. Its chief tributary is the *Warthe*, on the right bank. The *Vistula*, which is mainly in Poland, enters Germany above Thorn, and flows through a district which was formerly marshy, but which has been drained. It forms at its mouth a great delta, which embankments have transformed from a swamp into fertile meadows. Beyond the Vistula are the *Pregel* and the *Niemen*.

**7. Climate.**—The distance of Germany from the Atlantic causes its climate to be warmer in summer and colder in winter than that of France and the British Isles. There is no very great variation of temperature in the different parts of the country, because the atmospheric currents of the south, which, if the surface of the land were uniform, would be warmer than those in the north, are cooled in the high levels of the hills and table-lands. The warmest districts are the sheltered valley of the Rhine between the Black Forest and the Vosges, and the almost equally sheltered valley of the Main. The largest rainfall occurs in the Harz Mountains, which are so

situated that they directly intercept the vapour-laden winds from the south-west.

**8. History.**—Lying in the centre of Europe, and separated from its neighbours in the south, east, and west only by land boundaries, Germany has necessarily had much to do with the affairs of other nations, and its frontiers have been very different at different periods of its history. It originally received a common name, not because its people formed a united nation, but because it was inhabited by kindred tribes who spoke dialects of one language. In the early days of the Roman Empire the land held by these tribes extended from the North Sea and the Baltic to about the upper Danube, from the Rhine to about the Vistula. West of them were the Gauls; to the south, the Keltic tribes of the Alps; to the east, tribes speaking Slavonic dialects.

The Romans made several attempts to conquer North Germany, but failed. They succeeded in obtaining possession of a considerable southern district. Here they built a boundary wall, remains of which still survive. It begins at the Danube between Regensburg and Ingolstadt, and advances north-westward over ridges of the Spessart and the Taunus to the neighbourhood of Ems. The country between this wall and the Rhine became thoroughly Roman. The Romans had also important towns on the left bank of the Rhine, including those now called Speyer, Mainz, and Cologne.

In the fifth century a large number of tribes—partly because of the pressure of invading Huns—quitted their own country, and founded kingdoms within the area of the Roman Empire. The consequence was that great tracts of what had been German territory were occupied by Slavonic settlers, and the eastern boundary of Germany reached no farther than the Saale and the lower Elbe. Germany was conquered by the Franks, and was often called *East Francia* to distinguish it from *West Francia* or the Gallic part of the Frankish kingdom. In 887, as already stated, the two countries were finally severed from one another, and from this time, for many centuries, Germany always had a king of her own. In the south she

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had been steadily extending her frontier, and during the middle ages it reached to the Alps and the Adriatic. Early in the tenth century the Duchy of Lorraine, including the basins of the Moselle and the Meuse, was added to the kingdom. Eastward, wide territories were won at the expense of the Slavs, partly by the sword, partly by the peaceful enterprise of German colonists. Among the lands thus gradually annexed were Moravia, Bohemia, Silesia, Meissen, Lusatia or Lausitz, Brandenburg, Pomerania, and Prussia. The latter country, lying chiefly in the basin of the lower Vistula, and inhabited by Lithuanians, was subdued by the knights of the Teutonic Order.

In 962, Otto I, King of Germany, was crowned Emperor at Rome; and after his time every German king claimed the right to receive the Italian and the Imperial crowns. Thus the Roman Empire was restored, and from the eleventh century it included for some time, in addition to Germany and northern Italy, the kingdom of Burgundy. The German kings were elected in early times by the whole people, afterwards by the leading nobles, and finally by a group of princes called Electors, three of whom were spiritual, four secular. Occupied with distant interests, the emperors were often led to neglect their German dominions, and so there grew up many small feudal principalities and free cities, which, after the middle of the thirteenth century, were almost independent of imperial control. From the fifteenth century, the crown was held by the House of Hapsburg. This dynasty produced some powerful emperors, but they owed their power, not to their imperial position, but to their great hereditary territories.

So weak did the central authority become in the thirteenth century, that many towns formed alliances with one another for mutual protection. The greatest of these alliances was that of the **Hanseatic League**, which included all important German towns on the Baltic and the North Sea, and many inland towns as well. This League had strong fleets, and defended its own interests so vigorously that for several centuries it was a formidable Power, and its leading members carried on an extensive trade.

The Reformation, with the Thirty Years' War which sprang from it, increased the disunion of Germany, and much territory was lost through the feebleness of the Government. By the Treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, Switzerland and the United Provinces, which had long been practically separated from the Empire, were recognised as independent Powers; and France obtained in western lands a firm footing which enabled her afterwards to seize the whole of Alsace and Lorraine.

In 1806 the Empire came formally to an end. After the Napoleonic wars the German States, including Austria, were united in a **Confederation**, with a Federal Diet at Frankfurt; but this arrangement gave them no real power of common action. Influences were at work, however, which did by and by secure national institutions for Germany.

In the fifteenth century *Brandenburg* was given to a prince of the **House of Hohenzollern**. His dynasty kept a strong hold over this territory, and from time to time made considerable additions to it. In the seventeenth century the Hohenzollerns inherited the Duchy of Prussia, which was not included in the dominions of the Empire; and in 1701 Frederick, Elector of Brandenburg, caused himself to be crowned King of Prussia. His son, Frederick William I, secured some other lands, and Frederick the Great annexed Posen and the greater part of Silesia. Prussia was enfeebled by Napoleon, but recovered her ground, and obtained new possessions, after his downfall. In the German Confederation she was a powerful rival of Austria, and in 1866 the quarrels of the two States led to a war, the result of which was that Austria was excluded from Germany, while the North German States united in a Confederation under the leadership of Prussia, and the South German States undertook to place their armies at the Prussian king's disposal. A war with France, carried on in 1870-71, was so successful that the King of Prussia was made **German Emperor**, and Germany regained Alsace and a part of Lorraine.

**9. Government.**—The Empire is made up of 25 States, including three free cities. These States, so far as their own

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home affairs are concerned, are independent, each having its own system of government. For the regulation of matters in which all are equally concerned, they have common institutions. At the head of the Empire stands the Emperor, whose crown is hereditary in the reigning family of Prussia. In association with him are the Bundesrath or Confederate Council, and the Reichstag or Imperial Parliament. The former consists of plenipotentiaries appointed by the various States of the Empire, each State having votes bearing a general proportion to its population. The members of the Reichstag are elected by the people, one deputy being chosen by every group of 100,000 inhabitants. No measure that does not secure a majority of votes both in the Bundesrath and in the Reichstag can become law ; and laws acquire binding force by being proclaimed by the Emperor. The Emperor appoints the Reichskanzler or Imperial Chancellor, who presides over the Bundesrath, and is the chief of the Imperial Chancellery, including offices for foreign affairs, for the postal, telegraph, and railway systems, for the admiralty, and for other great national interests. The seat of the Imperial Government is at Berlin, but the Imperial Court of Justice sits at Leipzig.

The army is the most perfectly organised military force that has ever existed. It consists of the standing army (the Line and the Reserve), the Landwehr, and the Landsturm. Every German, from the completion of his twentieth year, must be in the standing army for seven years ; three years being spent in the Line, four in the Reserve. Up to his thirty-ninth year he is in the Landwehr, and to his forty-fifth in the Landsturm, which is liable to be called to service only in the event of an enemy being in possession of some part of the national soil. In war the emperor is commander-in-chief of all the imperial forces ; in peace, of all with the exception of the army of Bavaria. Including the Landsturm and one-year volunteers, the army would consist, in time of war, of 2,650,000 trained soldiers, while there would be a vast additional force of imperfectly trained troops.

The navy, although of less importance as a means of

defence, is also strong. In addition to officers, it has about 15,000 non-commissioned officers, men, and boys.

**10. Area, Population, and National Character.**—The area of the Empire is 211,135 square miles, and in 1885 the population was 46,855,704, or 221 to every square mile. The population increases very rapidly, and great numbers emigrate, chiefly to the United States.

All ancient writers who refer to the matter agree that the Germans of their time were tall and stout with fair hair and blue eyes. They belonged to the purest type of what is called the Aryan race. This type still prevails in North Germany; but it is much less common in South Germany, where the great majority of the population are of smaller build, with round skulls, dark hair, and dark eyes. It is known from sepulchral remains that men of a race of comparatively low stature, with round skulls, were contemporaries of the Teutons in Germany even in prehistoric times; and the numbers of those who had essentially the same physical characteristics seem to have been largely increased during the Roman period, and at the time when tribes speaking Slavonic languages crowded into what had been, and are now, the eastern districts of Germany.

The people of South Germany are generally more lively and sociable than those of the north. Both in mental and physical qualities they resemble more or less closely the predominant element in the population of France. The fair-haired North Germans are slow of movement, with a great capacity for eating and drinking. They are loyal and trustworthy, brave and steady in war, laborious in the ordinary occupations of life; and they are remarkable for the warmth of their domestic affections, the independence of their modes of thought, and the depth and constancy of their love for poetry and music.

The Germans are divided into great groups, which correspond only in part with existing political divisions. The north-western coast and the Frisian Islands are inhabited by people of the **Frisian** stock, whose dialect, of all German dialects, is most closely akin to English. Behind them, in the part of the northern plain watered by the Ems, the Weser, and the Elbe, are the **Saxons**, who,

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from the ninth to the twelfth century, were united in the great Duchy of Saxony. In and around the Thuringian Forest are the **Thuringians**, a name which perhaps sprang from that of the Hermunduri, an ancient group of Teutonic tribes. The **Franconians** inhabit chiefly the region watered by the Main. They are of Frankish origin. To the south of them are the **Bavarians** and the **Swabians**. The Swabians derive their name from the confederation of tribes known as the Suevi, some of whom, in the later part of the Roman age, passed into the country now called Würtemberg, and afterwards forced their way to the valley of the Rhine and southward to the Alps. Germans from all parts of the country settled in the districts east of the Elbe, but the majority came from Saxony and Thuringia.

The language of the Germans belongs to the Teutonic group of the Aryan family. It is divided into two branches, High Dutch and Low Dutch. High Dutch is now the language of educated society and of literature, but it is universally spoken only in the highland districts. In the northern plain, especially in rural districts, Low Dutch continues to be used. To the Low Dutch branch belong Platt Deutsch, Frisian, Flemish, the language called Dutch, and English. In Schleswig a considerable proportion of the population speaks Danish, and in some eastern districts Slavonic languages survive. Polish is spoken by more than two millions of Poles, who are settled chiefly in Posen; and the Czech and Wendish languages are maintained by small groups, the former in Silesia, the latter in Lusatia. Lithuanian, an independent Aryan tongue, survives in the north-eastern extremity of Prussia.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries there was a great outburst of poetic genius in Germany, the most remarkable works being the "Nibelungenlied" and other poems embodying ancient Teutonic legends. For six centuries after this period Germany did nothing of commanding importance in literature, but in the eighteenth century she produced a cluster of illustrious writers, including Lessing, Goethe, Schiller, and Kant; and in later times she has had many eminent poets, historians, philosophers, and scholars. To every branch of physical and

natural science she has made fruitful contributions ; and to her the world owes the invention of printing. In painting she has the great names of Albert Dürer and Holbein, and no other country has anything that can be compared with the achievements of her musical composers.

**11. Religion and Education.**—Germany was converted to Christianity in the seventh and eighth centuries, chiefly through the labours of the English missionary Winfrith, called also St. Bonifacius and the Apostle of the Germans. During the Middle Ages the Roman Church had great power in Germany, and in the quarrels of the Emperor with the Pope it often turned the scale in favour of the Papacy. At the time of the Reformation the majority of the population abandoned the Church of Rome, and now there are about thirty millions of Protestants and only about half as many Roman Catholics. Protestantism prevails in the north, Catholicism in the south ; but the Protestants do not form one body. They are divided into the Lutheran, the Reformed, and the United Churches. The population includes more than half a million Jews, most of whom are loyal to their ancient faith.

Education has been brought to a high degree of perfection in Germany. There are 57,000 elementary schools, and the laws which make attendance compulsory are rigidly enforced. Many middle schools called Gymnasia provide for intermediate education ; and there are numerous Real-schulen for the training of those who wish to devote themselves to commercial life. Germany has twenty-one Universities, and her technical schools are among the best in Europe.

**12. Industry and Trade.**—By far the most important industry is agriculture. The river valleys and the northern slopes of the highlands are remarkably fertile, but elsewhere the soil is not particularly good. In all parts of Germany there are great land-owners, but there is also a large class of peasant proprietors, who carry on their work with untiring industry. Wheat and rye are the chief cereal crops. In many districts, especially in the north-east, much land is devoted

to the growth of potatoes, which are used in the making of brandy. Flax, hops, and tobacco are also cultivated ; and excellent fruit of various kinds is produced in central and southern Germany. There are many famous vineyards on the banks of the Rhine, the Moselle, the Neckar, and other rivers. Germany is distinguished among the nations of Europe for the extent of its forests. They exist chiefly in hilly districts, and are not only of economic value, but form one of the greatest charms of German scenery. Most of them belong to the Governments of the countries in which they grow, and they are cultivated with the utmost care.

Minerals are a most important source of wealth in Germany. In the Rhine province and Westphalia there is a great coal-field which stretches thither from Belgium and France. There is another at Saarbrück, and there are also coal-fields in Saxony and Silesia. Brown coal, or lignite, which is used as fuel, is found on both sides of the Rhine and in the northern plain. Iron ores are found in the Rhineland, Westphalia, Silesia, the Harz, and elsewhere. There are rich ores of zinc in Upper Silesia ; and lead is obtained in the Harz, the Erzgebirge, Silesia, and the Rhineland. Copper is worked in various districts, especially at Mansfeld and Eisleben. Silver is found in the Harz, the Erzgebirge, and other hilly regions ; and tin, bismuth, and nickel and cobalt are plentiful in Saxony. Rock-salt is worked in every State, with the exception of the kingdom of Saxony ; and large supplies of amber come from the Baltic coast.

There are great iron works in the Rhine provinces, Westphalia, and Saxony, but the linen and woollen trades are the most important manufacturing industries. Linen is produced in Silesia, Lusatia, Westphalia, the Harz, and to a smaller extent in many other districts. The woollen industry has its chief seats in the Rhineland, Saxony, Brandenburg, Silesia, and Würtemberg. Silk is made in some Rhine districts ; and the manufacture of leather and paper gives employment to large classes. Sugar-refining is also an important industry ; and there are many breweries and distilleries. Wood-carving is a

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favourite occupation in the Black Forest and the Thuringian Forest.

The central position of Germany gives it great advantages for trade. The country also profits by the facts that it has a long line of coast, with some good harbours, and that interior districts can communicate freely with the North Sea by means of the Rhine, the Weser, and the Elbe ; and with the Baltic by means of the Oder. The value of these natural conditions is immensely increased by good highways, many canals, and an elaborate railway system ; and by the care with which the people are trained to make use of the industrial facilities within their reach.

Germany trades by land routes with all her continental neighbours, and she also carries on a great foreign trade from the Baltic and the North Sea. The most important of her foreign commercial relations are those which she has with Great Britain, Austria-Hungary, Russia, Belgium, Holland, and France. Among her principal exports are beet-root sugar, cotton and woollen fabrics, leather, paper, and carved wood. Her chief imports include raw cotton, wool, raw silk, coffee, wheat, and horses.

### *North Germany.*

**13. The Kingdom of Prussia.**—By far the most important State in Germany is PRUSSIA. It has an area of 137,066 square miles, with a population (in 1885) of 28,318,470, or 209 to every square mile. The form of government is a limited monarchy, the king being also the German Emperor. Parliament consists of two Houses, the Herrenhaus or House of Lords, and the Landtag, whose members are appointed by a body of electors chosen by the people. The ministers are nominated by the crown, and do not necessarily lose their position through a hostile vote in Parliament, the crown being more powerful than in England and some other constitutional countries. About two-thirds of the population are Protestants, the rest being Roman Catholics. Prussia has ten Universities, and an ample supply of well organised elementary schools, middle schools, Gymnasia, and Realschulen, with various institutions

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for training in agriculture, forestry, mining, and the principles applicable to manufacturing industries.

**14. Brandenburg.**—The kingdom is divided into provinces, which generally correspond to old historic territories. The central province is *Brandenburg*, the realm around which the monarchy grew. This district was inhabited in early times by Teutonic tribes belonging to the Suevic group, and after their departure by Slavs, who were only gradually brought into subjection by the Germans. Brandenburg was for centuries a **mark** or **march** to the east of the Duchy of Saxony, with which it was connected; but it gradually made itself independent, and from the thirteenth century the margrave was recognised as an **Elector**. In 1411 it was granted by the Emperor Sigismund to Frederick, Burgrave of Nürnberg, a member of the house of Hohenzollern, under whose descendants it has been brought to great destinies. It used sometimes to be called “the sandbox of the Holy Roman Empire,” but there is not more truth in this nickname than in nicknames generally. The surface is undulating, with lines of low hills parted by wide river-valleys. The depressions consist partly of sandy tracts, partly of moorlands; and on the higher grounds there are many woods and wheat-fields. The district is watered by the Oder and some of its tributaries, and by the Havel and the Spree. The Havel, especially after its junction with the Spree, forms a large number of lakes.

The chief town is **Berlin**, the capital of Prussia, and the greatest city in Germany. It lies in a flat, sandy part of the valley of the Spree, but between rising grounds in the north and south. Its central position with regard to the monarchy as a whole gives it considerable advantages as the seat of government and as a centre of trade. Berlin sprang from two villages, one of which, Kolne, a fishing village, was built on an island formed by the Spree with one of its arms. Opposite Kolne, on the right bank of the main stream, was the village of Berlin, engaged chiefly in trade. Early in the fourteenth century the two villages were joined under a common Council; and the united town came to be known as Berlin. It became a member

of the Hanseatic League, and until the middle of the fifteenth century was practically independent. Frederick, the second Hohenzollern elector, took possession of it in 1442, but it did not for a long time become important even under the Hohenzollerns. It suffered much during the Thirty Years' War, and in 1640 had only a population of 6000. Berlin entered upon a new era under the Great Elector, at the time of whose death, in 1688, it had 20,000 inhabitants. He had attracted to the city many French refugees, who had been driven from France by the intolerant policy of Louis XIV. These settlers did much to help the growth of industry, and strongly influenced the character of the people, who are of a more lively, witty, and sarcastic temper than the inhabitants of other North German towns. The successors of the Great Elector continued his work, and in 1786, when Frederick the Great died, Berlin had a population of 114,000. Afterwards the city was steadily extended, and when it became the capital, first of the North German Confederation, then of the German Empire, it increased in size and importance with unparalleled rapidity. In 1885 it had a population of 1,315,287.

The Spree winds through Berlin, chiefly in a north-westerly direction; and it is crossed by many bridges. Two points of the river are connected by a canal, which flows through the southern and south-western districts. A wall with nineteen gates surrounds what were in the eighteenth century the outer limits of Berlin; but the town has spread in nearly all directions far beyond these boundaries.

The chief street is Unter den Linden, one of the finest thoroughfares in Europe. It is wide, with four rows of lime trees, and has many beautiful buildings. Through the Brandenburg Gate it communicates with the Tiergarten—a great public park, or forest, skirted on the north by the Spree. The Brandenburg Gate was built towards the end of the eighteenth century in imitation of the Propylaea of Athens. On the top is a bronze group, consisting of a figure of Victory in a chariot drawn by four horses. This group was taken by Napoleon

to Paris, but afterwards given back. At the other end of Unter den Linden is a splendid equestrian statue of Frederick the Great, with figures of his chief German contemporaries grouped around the pedestal. Among the buildings of Berlin are several royal palaces, the most interesting of which is the old palace, a massive handsome edifice built by the first King of Prussia. Near it is the Museum, built in the classical style, and containing many priceless treasures of art. Both of these buildings are on the island formerly occupied by the village of Kolne. On one of the bridges near them there is a fine equestrian statue of the Great Elector. This bridge leads to the district in which the original village of Berlin was built. Here the older history of the city is recalled by three churches dating from the thirteenth century.

Berlin is important not only as the seat of the Prussian and German Governments, but as a centre of science, art, literature, and education. Among the most famous of its institutions are the Academy of Arts and Sciences, of which Leibniz was the first president; and the university, one of the largest and most perfectly equipped universities in the world. There are also a great polytechnic school, and many institutions for the teaching of music. The city has a flourishing trade; and it manufactures, among other things, machinery, silk and cotton fabrics, lace, and porcelain.

West of Berlin, and now almost included in it, is CHARLOTTENBURG, formerly called Lützelburg. The name was changed in the eighteenth century in honour of the Electress Charlotte, who had a palace in the neighbourhood. In the park is a mausoleum containing fine recumbent figures of King Frederick William III and Queen Louise—the masterpieces of the sculptor Rauch. Here also are buried the Emperor William and the Empress Augusta. Southwest of Berlin, on the Havel, is POTSDAM (pop. 50,877), near which are picturesque lakes and hills. Beside Potsdam are several royal palaces, one of which, Sans Souci, is closely associated with the history of Frederick the Great. Another town on the Havel is BRANDENBURG,

formerly the capital of the Margraviate, to which it gave its name. It has a cathedral. FRANKFURT-ON-THE-ODER is a trading town, in which three great markets are held in the course of the year.

**15. Pomerania.**—*Pomerania*, formerly a duchy, was annexed to Prussia bit by bit, a part in 1648, a part in 1720, and the rest in 1814. It belongs to the northern plain, but this does not mean that it is quite flat; most of it forms a part of the gentle northern slope of the Ural-Baltic ridge. It has many lakes, and is watered by the river Oder and some smaller streams. The chief industry is agriculture, but the soil is not generally fertile, and becomes less productive as we advance from west to east. Large numbers of geese are reared in Pomerania.

The chief town is STETTIN (pop. 99,543), on the Oder. It was originally a fishing village, but became an important Hanseatic town and the capital of the duchy. It manufactures sugar, brandy, and machinery, and much trade passes through it. As a port, it has the same relation to Berlin that Havre has to Paris. COLBERG, near the mouth of the Persante, is a trading town, with a beautiful cathedral. GREIFSWALD grew up around a Cistercian monastery. It lies on a small navigable stream, within easy reach of a good harbour, and is a prosperous town. It has a university, richly endowed. STRALSUND, on the coast opposite the island of Rügen, was in the fourteenth century one of the chief Hanseatic towns, and in the seventeenth it successfully resisted a siege by Wallenstein, who hoped to use it as a means for the creation of a great imperial navy. It has still a considerable coasting trade.

The island of RÜGEN is generally rather flat, but hilly in the north-east, where a hill called Stubbenkammer is famous for the magnificence of the sea-view which may be obtained from the top. One of the sides of this hill is a precipitous cliff. The soil of the island is generally much more fertile than that of the mainland. The chief town is BERGEN, near which the poet Arndt was born.

**16. Prussia.**—*Prussia*, the province from which the monarchy has received its name, is crossed by the Ural-Baltic ridge, and includes its northern slope, with a depres-

sion on the southern side. The lower Vistula, the Pregel, and the Niemen water the district, in which there are also numerous lakes. The river-valleys are fertile, with much fine pasture-land; but elsewhere there are many sandy and marshy tracts. Agriculture and fishing are the principal industries. The population is chiefly German, but there are many Lithuanians, some of whom in the north-east speak the Lithuanian language.

The province is divided into East Prussia and West Prussia. The capital of *East Prussia* is KOENIGSBERG (pop. 154,513), near the mouth of the Pregel. It sprang from three small towns built in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and became in the fifteenth century the residence of the Grand Master of the Teutonic Order, by whose members Prussia was conquered. It is strongly fortified, and has a cathedral; a university, made famous in the eighteenth century by the philosopher Kant; and an old palace. It is in this city that those of the Prussian kings who have been crowned have gone through the ceremony of coronation. A good deal of trade passes through Königsberg, the chief articles of export being wheat, rye, and hemp. Only small vessels can reach the town itself; larger vessels are loaded and unloaded at PILLAU. MEMEL, at the mouth of the Curisches Haff, has a considerable trade in wheat and timber. FRAUENBURG, on the Frisches Haff, has a cathedral in which is the grave of Copernicus. At TILSIT, on the Niemen, Prussia concluded in 1807 what was for her a disastrous treaty of peace with France.

The chief town in *West Prussia* is DANZIG (pop. 114,805), near the coast of the Gulf of Danzig. Through the town passes the Mottlau, an arm of the Vistula. This river is deep enough to admit small vessels, but large ships remain at Neufahrwasser, at its mouth. In the centre of the town the Mottlau forms an island, on which are the chief trading establishments. Danzig is known to have existed in the sixth century, and in the tenth it was an important city. In the fourteenth century it fell into the hands of the Teutonic Order, but became one of the leading members of the Hanseatic League. From the fifteenth to the eighteenth century it was a free city under the Polish

crown, and in 1793 it came into the possession of Prussia. It is strongly fortified, and has remarkably picturesque surroundings, with fine sea-views in front, and in the background wooded hills, valleys, and lakes. The city itself is one of the most beautiful in Germany. In its streets, most of which are old and narrow, are many quaint houses with high gables finely decorated. Among its numerous public buildings are the magnificent parish church of St. Mary, in which is a famous picture of the Last Judgment,

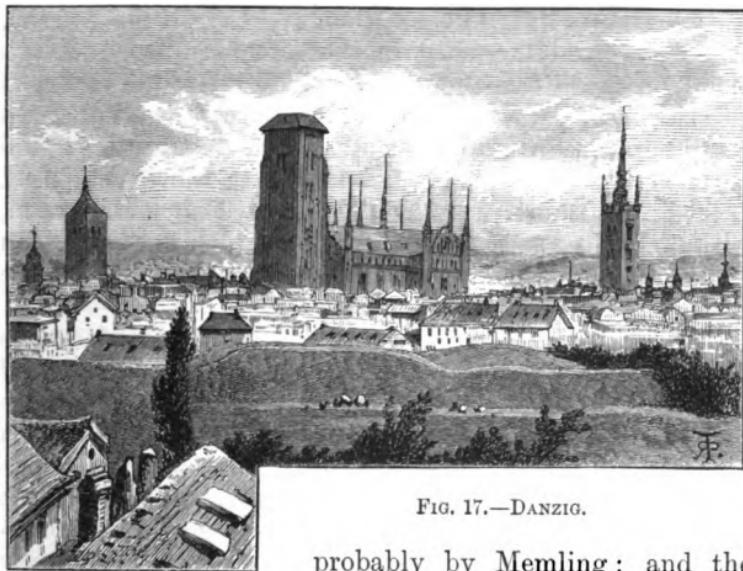


FIG. 17.—DANZIG.

probably by Memling; and the town hall, an old edifice in the Gothic style. Danzig has a great trade, the chief exports being wheat, timber, and brandy. ELBING, east of the Vistula, near the Frisches Haff, grew up in the thirteenth century, and was an important member of the Hanseatic League. It lies in the midst of a fertile district, and is one of the centres of the corn trade. It has also some manufactures. MARIENBURG, on the Vistula, and MARIENWERDER, on an arm of the Nogat, east of the Vistula, were both founded by the Teutonic Order; and Marienburg was for some time the chief seat of the Grand Master. Marienwerder, picturesquely situated on an

elevation, has a cathedral. THORN, on the Vistula, was the birthplace of Copernicus.

17. *Posen*.—*Posen* is the most level of all the districts included in the eastern part of the northern plains. It is watered chiefly by the Warthe, and has some fertile tracts, which are famous for their grain. There are, however, many sandy heaths and morasses. More than half of the population are Poles, nearly all of whom are Roman Catholics. The rest of the inhabitants are Germans and Jews. The province has many towns, but most of them are small and poor. The capital is POSEN (pop. 68,315), on the Warthe. It was probably founded in the sixth century, and was made prosperous in the thirteenth by the immigration of German settlers. As it covers the road leading from Russia to Berlin and Breslau, it is of great strategic importance, and is strongly fortified. It has a cathedral. GNESEN, the most picturesquely situated town in Posen, with low hills and lakes in the neighbourhood, has an ancient cathedral in which many kings of Poland were crowned.

18. *Silesia*.—*Silesia* was formed by the union of various duchies, which came into the possession of the house of Hapsburg in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The greater part of it was annexed by Frederick II of Prussia in 1740, and in 1816 a portion of Lusatia was added to the province. Prussian Silesia takes in a part of the Sudetic range in the south, and the Riesengebirge in the southwest; and in front of these ranges is an extensive hilly district. In the south-east a table-land is formed by the Ural-Carpathian ridge. The rest of Silesia is included in the northern plain. The province lies almost wholly in the basin of the Oder. The population is chiefly German, but includes various branches of the Slavonic stock. The principal industry is agriculture, but in upper Silesia there are great mines of coal, iron, zinc, and lead, and many iron works, and factories for the production of woollen and linen fabrics. Paper, glass, and pottery are also manufactured.

The capital is BRESLAU (pop. 299,640), on the Oder, the second largest city in Prussia. It was originally a Slavonic town, called Wroclawa, a name mentioned by a writer of

the eleventh century. It lies chiefly on the left bank of the Oder, which is crossed by numerous bridges. Breslau has a university, and many fine public buildings, the most interesting of which are St. Elizabeth's Church, with a lofty spire, the cathedral, and the old town hall. It has important manufactures, and a great trade is secured for it by its proximity to mining and manufacturing districts, and by the fact that its geographical position makes it a centre for commerce between the coast on the one hand and the Danube and the upper Vistula on the other, and between Poland and Bohemia. GÖRLITZ (pop. 55,702) is an important manufacturing town on the western Neisse. In this town lived Jacob Boehme (1575-1624), a shoemaker, who has a great place in the history of mysticism. On the eastern Neisse are GLATZ, famous for its glass ; and WALDENBURG, a manufacturing town, and the centre of a mining district. LIEGNITZ, on the Katzbach, distributes the products of the surrounding corn-growing country. Near it, in 1241, was fought a great battle between the Germans and a horde of Mongols. At the village of MOLWITZ Frederick II fought his first battle, and at LEUTHEN he gained one of his greatest victories during the Seven Years' War.

**19. Saxony.**—The province of *Saxony* includes the *Altmark*, a district in the north, from which Brandenburg was gradually conquered. The rest of the province was added at different times, at the expense of the Electorate of Saxony, to the territory of the house of Hohenzollern. The surface is very varied, the southern districts belonging to the highlands of Germany, the northern to the great plain. The province is watered by the Elbe and the Saale. In the east and west there are some rather barren tracts, but the centre is famous for its fertility, and produces, in addition to grain, much fruit, tobacco, and beet-root. The hilly districts have mines of copper, silver, lead, iron, coal, and lignite ; and great quantities of salt are prepared. In the towns there are many important manufactures.

The capital is MAGDEBURG (pop. 114,291), on the Elbe. Its name occurs early in the ninth century, and in the tenth

it became the favourite residence of the Emperor Otto I and his first wife Edith, an English princess. It was a great Hanseatic town. The sack of Magdeburg in 1631 by Tilly's wild soldiers was one of the most appalling incidents of the Thirty Years' War; but the town has so many conditions favourable to commercial prosperity that it soon recovered even from this shock. It has a magnificent cathedral, and in the old market-place an ancient monument of Otto I. The surrounding districts are so fertile that Magdeburg, situated on a great navigable river flowing directly to the sea, could not fail to have an important trade. It has also numerous manufactures. The town is one of the chief fortresses of Germany. STENDAL, in the valley of the Uchte, is the capital of the Altmark, and was the birthplace of Winckelmann, the first modern scholar who prepared the way for the right appreciation of Greek art. HALBERSTADT, in the fertile valley of the Holzemme, is a picturesque old town near the Harz Mountains. It has a splendid cathedral, and a pleasant aspect is given to the streets by the projection of the upper and decorated parts of many of the houses over the lower storeys. QUEDLINBURG is a town of the same character, on the Bode. The Emperor Henry I gave it to his wife Mathilde, who built in it what became a famous convent. This town was the birthplace of Klopstock. It manufactures cloth, and has a considerable trade in garden-products. NORDHAUSEN, on the Sorge, and MÜHLHAUSEN, on the upper Unstrut, were both formerly free imperial cities, and have some fine old buildings. HALLE (pop. 81,982), on the Saale, is famous chiefly for its university and other educational institutions, but is also an industrial and trading town. It was the birthplace of Handel. Farther up the Saale is MERSEBURG, the capital, in the ninth century, of a county of the same name. Otto I made it the seat of a bishopric for the conversion of the Wends, and it still has its ancient cathedral. In the middle ages its markets were visited by traders from all parts of Germany. NAUMBURG, also on the Saale, is another cathedral city.

In the province of Saxony are several towns closely

associated with Luther. He was born and died at EISLEBEN, then the capital of the county of Mansfeld ; and he spent his boyhood at MANSFIELD, where his father was a miner. Both towns are still the centres of mining districts. At ERFURT, on the Gera, he was a student, and afterwards a monk. Erfurt (pop. 58,386) is the chief town in Thuringia, with textile manufactures and a trade in flowers and kitchen vegetables. It has a cathedral with the largest bell in Germany, cast in 1497, and called " Maria Gloriosa." At WITTENBERG, on the Elbe, Luther began the work of the Reformation. The university, at which he was a professor, has been merged in that of Halle.

**20. Holstein and Schleswig.**—*Holstein* and *Schleswig*, with the small Duchy of *Lauenburg*, were formerly subject to the King of Denmark, who as Duke of Holstein was a member of the German Confederation. In 1864 these lands were taken from him by Prussia and Austria, and in 1866 Holstein and Schleswig were annexed to Prussia. Lauenburg had been made over to the Prussian king in 1865. They form the southern part of the Danish peninsula, and belong to the northern plain. The chief river is the Eider. The population of Holstein (which now includes Lauenburg) is wholly German, the majority being of the Saxon stock. The inhabitants of the district called *Dithmarschen* (Dutch marshes), on the south-western coast, are Frisians. In the southern part of Schleswig the language spoken is German : in the northern, Danish. In both districts agriculture is the principal industry. They have much good pasture, and have always been famous for their cattle. In Holstein there are fine breeds of horses.

The chief town in Holstein is ALTONA (pop. 104,717), on the Elbe, close to Hamburg. Originally a fishing village, Altona has become important only in comparatively recent times. It has manufactures, and a great shipping trade. KIEL (pop. 51,706), on the splendid bay of the same name, is the chief station of the German navy. It has a university.

In Schleswig the largest town is FLENSBURG, at the western end of the Flensburg Fiord, through which it carries on a considerable trade. SCHLESWIG, a trading town

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at the western end of the Schlei Fiord, was formerly the capital of the duchy.

**21. Hanover.**—*Hanover*, formerly an electorate, afterwards a kingdom, has an especial interest for Englishmen, because it gave England her present royal house, and was ruled by the English king from the accession of George I to the death of William IV. It became a Prussian province in 1866. Hanover consists of two parts, separated from one another by the Duchy of Brunswick. The southern part includes a portion of the Harz Mountains and other highland districts. Most of the northern part belongs to the great plain. The province is watered chiefly by the Weser, with its affluents the Leine and the Aller, and by the Ems. The population belongs mainly to the Saxon stock, but Frisians occupy the north-western coast. In the plain, where the chief industry is agriculture, there are great tracts of moorland, which is being gradually reclaimed. In the Harz the population depends principally on mining.

The capital is HANOVER (pop. 139,731), on the Leine and the Ihme, in a sandy valley made fertile by good tillage. It has some manufactures and a considerable trade. The newer part of the city was built after the accession of Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, in 1837. Among the buildings is a great royal palace, splendidly decorated, and containing a fine picture gallery. In the palace chapel are many objects of antiquarian interest, some of which were brought from Palestine in the twelfth century by Henry the Lion, the last duke of the great Duchy of Saxony, and the ancestor of the English royal family. In Hanover Leibniz lived and died, and it was the birthplace of Sir William Herschel and the brothers Schlegel. CELLE, on the Aller, is a manufacturing town; and LÜNEBURG, a charming old town on the Ilmenau, has great salt works. HARBURG, on the Elbe, is a town through which much trade passes on its way to the south and east. WILHELMSHAVEN, on Jahde Bay, is a great naval station. EMDEN, on the estuary of the Ems, in East Friesland, has fisheries and a shipping trade. OSNABRÜCK, on the Hase, produces linen and tobacco, and has a great

cattle market. In the town hall are portraits of the princes and ambassadors who took part in the negotiations at Osnabrück which led to the conclusion of peace, after the Thirty Years' War, between the Empire and Sweden. HAMELN, on the Weser, is finely situated, and has been made famous by the legend which forms the subject of Browning's "Pied Piper of Hamelin." HILDESHEIM, on the Innerste, has a cathedral and the beautiful old church of St. Godehard, and in its streets there is much interesting architecture. GOSLAR, on the Gose, once a free imperial city, was the favourite residence of the emperors of the Saxon line; and it has remains of an imperial palace and other ancient buildings. The mines in the neighbourhood were opened in the time of Otto I. Among other mining towns of the Harz is CLAUSTHAL, a quaint town with wooden houses, on a cold and lofty table-land. OSTERODE, at the southern foot of the Harz, has woollen and cotton manufactures; and it has an old castle, which was often occupied by the Saxon emperors. GÖTTINGEN, in the pleasant valley of the Leine, has a university with a splendid library.

**22. Hessen-Cassel.**—*Hessen-Cassel*, formerly an electorate, and Nassau, formerly a duchy, were annexed to Prussia in 1866. They now form one province.

The surface of Hessen-Cassel is generally rugged, and only the river-valleys have any high degree of fertility. The district is watered chiefly by the Fulda and its affluents. Among the industrial products are iron, steel, and brass wares, pottery, glass, silk fabrics, and articles made of leather.

The capital is CASSEL (pop. 64,083), a pleasant old town on the Fulda. It has various textile manufactures, and a valuable trade. It is the seat of several scientific and artistic societies, and has an important museum, containing a library and a good picture gallery. MARBURG, built at the point where the Ohm flows into the Lahn, is a picturesque town, with a university. SCHMALKALDEN, famous in the history of the Reformation, is a centre of the iron trade. FULDA, on the river of the same name, lies in a valley surrounded by hills, and is a picturesque town, with fine buildings. The present cathedral, built

in the eighteenth century, is the fourth which has occupied the same site. Among its treasures is what is said to be the skull of St. Bonifacius, a statue of whom adorns the town. His copy of the Gospels is in the public library. HANAU, on the Main and Kinzig, is an industrial and trading town, which was first made important by Dutch and French settlers in the sixteenth century.

*Nassau* takes in the Taunus range and the Westerwald, between which flows the lower Lahn ; and it includes a part of the right bank of the Rhine and the Main. It is the most richly wooded district in Germany, and its valleys produce much wheat and fruit. The best Rhine wines, such as Johannisberger, Rüdesheimer, and Markobrunner, come from the vineyards of Nassau. The district has also valuable mines, and is famous for its mineral springs.

The chief town is WIESBADEN (pop. 55,454). It is not mentioned in any old record till the thirteenth century ; but its springs were well known to the Romans, of whom many traces exist in the neighbourhood. The town is situated in a pleasant valley in the southern part of the Taunus. Other well-known Baths in Nassau are HOMBURG, in the upper Taunus, and EMS, on the Lahn. LIMBURG, on the Lahn, has a cathedral, and was an important town in the middle ages.

FRANKFURT-ON-THE-MAIN (pop. 154,513), which was also annexed to Prussia in 1866, is included with Nassau in the administrative district of Wiesbaden. The chief lines of communication between northern and southern Germany converge towards this city, so that from a very early period it has been a place of great commercial importance. A synod was held at Frankfurt in 794, in the time of Charles the Great. It was made a free imperial city in 1245. From the twelfth century the emperors were always elected at Frankfurt, and after the time of Charles V they were also crowned there. Among the public buildings are the cathedral, where the coronation took place ; and the town hall, called the Römer, in which are the ancient hall of election and the imperial banqueting hall. Frankfurt was the birthplace of Goethe.

**23. Westphalia.**—*Westphalia* is occupied by the western branch of the Saxon stock, and it belonged to the Duchy of Saxony till the twelfth century, when the greater part of it became subject to the Archbishop of Cologne. In 1807 it was included, with other districts, in the kingdom of Westphalia, under Jerome, brother of Napoleon. It was annexed to Prussia in 1816. In the south is the hilly district of the Sauerland, north of which is the great plain, crossed by the Teutoburg forest. Westphalia is watered by the Ruhr and the Lippe, and in part by the Ems and the Weser. There are some fertile tracts in the eastern and central districts, but the southern high grounds are not well fitted for agriculture, and in the north-west there are great unreclaimed moorlands. Large numbers of pigs are reared, and Westphalian ham is an important article of export. The province has a valuable coal-field and much iron ore, and there are great iron and steel works and textile manufactures.

The capital is MÜNSTER, on the Aa, so called from its proximity to a monastery famous during the middle ages. It is an old town, with much fine architecture. In the sixteenth century it was for some years in the hands of communistic Anabaptists. Among the chief buildings are the cathedral, and the beautiful church of St. Lambert, on the tower of which are three iron cages in which were suspended the bodies of the Anabaptist leaders. Münster has a good trade in local products, especially Westphalian ham. MINDEN, on the Weser, a cathedral city, and BIELEFELD, in the Teutoburg forest, have linen manufactures, and are important from a military point of view, as both command openings which give access to eastern districts. Near Minden the French were defeated by the English and Hanoverians in 1759. PADERBORN, a cathedral city, lying in a fruitful valley, was founded by Charles the Great. ARNSBERG, on the Ruhr, although a small town, has always had a certain importance, as it lies on the chief line of communication between the Rhine and the Weser. HAMM, on the Lippe, derives importance from the fact that it is the meeting-point of various trading routes, which are now occupied by railways. Of the towns con-

nected with the coal-field of Westphalia, the chief is DORTMUND (pop. 78,435), where there are great coal mines and iron works.

**24. The Rhine Province.**—The *Rhine Province* consists of a large number of territories which were formerly independent in the sense that they owed allegiance only to the emperor. Of these, Cleve, Obergeldern, and Mörs were the only territories subject to the house of Hohenzollern before 1816, when the rest of the province was made over to Prussia. The province includes some of the Sauerland Hills and the Eifelgebirge, and is watered by the Rhine, with the Lippe, the Ruhr, and other affluents on the right bank, the Nahe, the Moselle, and the Ahr on the left, and by the Roer. Wheat is grown in the valleys, and wine is produced on the banks of the Rhine, the Moselle, the Nahe, and the Ahr. This province is by far the most important manufacturing district of Prussia. It shares the coal-field which passes into Westphalia, and thus fuel is supplied for iron and steel works and textile factories.

The chief city is COLOGNE (pop. 161,401), on the left bank of the Rhine, occupying the site of a town of a Teutonic tribe called the *Ubii*. There the Romans built *Colonia Agrippina*. Cologne is the seat of an ancient archbishopric, and in former times the archbishop was one of the Electors. Its chief building is the famous cathedral, begun in the thirteenth century, and finished in 1880. Among the treasures of the cathedral are the bones of the Three Kings, presented by the Emperor Barbarossa, who brought them from Milan. Cologne has many other churches, some older, and in their own way not less interesting, than the cathedral. Opposite the city is DEUTZ, with which it is connected by a bridge of boats and an iron bridge. Cologne is strongly fortified, and its position on the Rhine—at a point where the banks are open, and the river wide—has made it since the time of the Romans an important centre of trade. Of its manufactured products the one best known is “Eau de Cologne.” Farther down the river, on the right bank, is DÜSSELDORF (pop. 115,190), a manufacturing and trading town, the birthplace of Heine, and the seat of a famous school of art.

Still farther down, not far from the left bank, is the interesting old town of CLEVE, with a castle in which Anne of Cleve, one of the wives of Henry VIII, was born. Up the river beyond Cologne is BONN, built on the site of the Roman fortress *Bonna*. Bonn commands fine views of the Rhine and the Siebengebirge. It has a university, and one of the ornaments of the town is a bronze statue of

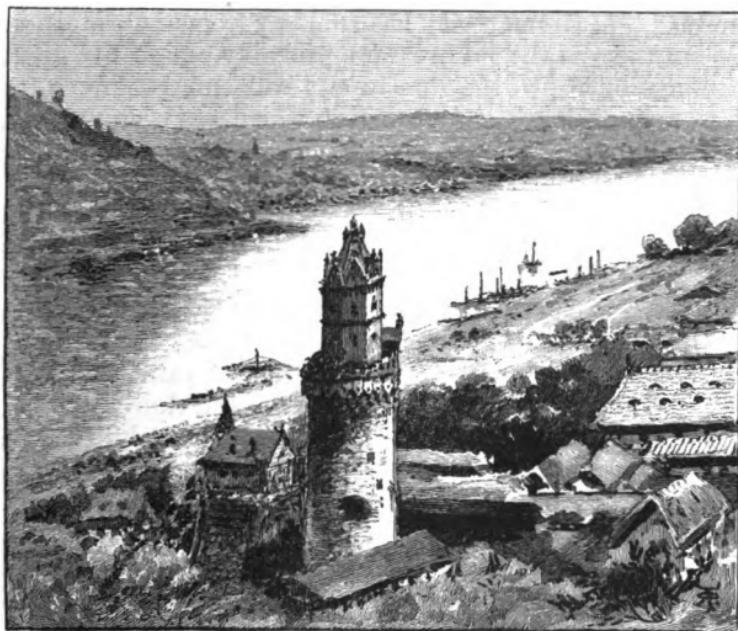


FIG. 18.—ANDERNACH.

Beethoven, who was born there. Farther up, on the left bank, is ANDERNACH, a picturesque little town which sprang from the Roman fortress *Autunnacum*. It still has its old walls and gates, and one of the most beautiful of the Rhenish Romanesque churches. COBLENTZ occupies the point at which the Moselle flows into the Rhine. It is finely situated, and much trade comes to it by both rivers, as well as from the Lahn. A height on the opposite side of the river is crowned by the great fortress of Ehrenbreitstein.

On the Moselle is TRIER or TREVES, built on the site of *Augusta Trevirorum*, so called because of the *Treviri*, the tribe, probably Belgic, by whom the district was held. It lies in a fertile valley, overlooked by vine-covered hills, and was the favourite residence of some of the Roman emperors. Like Cologne, Trier is the seat of an ancient archbishopric, which was one of the Electorates. It has a splendid cathedral, in which are some remains of a Roman church. No German city has so many Roman antiquities. Among them is the Porta Nigra, probably one of five great gateways by which the Roman city was entered, the ruins of an amphitheatre, and a basilica, which has been restored and is now used as a Protestant church. AACHEN, or AIX-LA-CHAPELLE (pop. 95,725), lies in a beautiful valley, surrounded by gently sloping hills. It owes its German name, and part of its French name, to its mineral springs (*aqua*.) Until the time of Ferdinand I, in the sixteenth century, the emperors were crowned at Aachen as Kings of Germany. The finest building, and one of the most interesting churches in Christendom, is the cathedral, built by Charles the Great in imitation of the church of San Vitale in Ravenna, whence pillars were brought for the decoration of the interior. The church as he built it was octagonal, but a choir was added in the fourteenth century. In this church the great emperor was buried, and Otto III, who opened the vault in 997, found his body robed, seated on a marble chair, with his sceptre in his hand, a copy of the Gospels on his knees, a piece of the cross on his head, and a pilgrim's scrip at his girdle. The chair was afterwards used in the ceremony of coronation. Another fine old building is the town hall, which occupies what was formerly the site of a palace of Charles the Great. Aachen lies in the neighbourhood of a coal-field, has woollen and other manufactures, and much trade. Among other manufacturing towns on the left bank of the Rhine is CREFELD (pop. 90,236), well known for its silks and velvets. On the right bank, in the neighbourhood of coal mines, are ELBERFELD (pop. 106,499) and BARMEN (pop. 103,068), both on the Wupper, with great cotton and silk manufactures. SOLINGEN, near the same river, has iron

and steel manufactures, and at ESSEN (pop. 65,064) are the vast works for the production of Krupp's steel guns.

*Hohenzollern*, in South Germany, an outlying portion of the Prussian dominions, is connected with the Rhine province for several administrative purposes. At HECHINGEN, on a height of the Swabian Jura, is the castle which was the original seat of the Hohenzollern family.

**25. The Kingdom of Saxony.**—The greater part of the country now called the Kingdom of SAXONY was formerly included in the Mark or March of *Misnia* or *Meissen*, which was gradually conquered from the Slavs. In 1442 the Margrave of Meissen, who also possessed *Thuringia*, obtained the Electorate of Saxony, a state formed out of a part of the old Saxon duchy, which had been broken up in the twelfth century; and thus the name of Saxony came to be extended to lands to which it had not been originally applied. In 1806 the Elector of Saxony was made a king, but in 1815 a large part of his territory was added to the Saxon province of Prussia. The lands included in *Thuringia*, and now called Saxon, had been severed from the Electorate during the struggles at the time of the Reformation, and had again and again been subdivided in accordance with the laws of inheritance.

The northern districts of the Kingdom of Saxony lie in the great plain ; but the country becomes more and more hilly as it advances southward towards the Erzgebirge. It is watered chiefly by the Elbe and the Elster. At the point where the Elbe pierces the Erzgebirge there is a remarkably picturesque district called *Saxon Switzerland*. This is an extensive table-land of sandstone, which has been worn by the streams passing through it, and by rain, frost, and the atmosphere, into all sorts of strange fantastic forms. High above the general level of the table-land rise various peaks, on the summits of some of which castles have been built. On one of them, overlooking the Elbe, is the fortress of *Königstein*, which has never been captured.

The area of the Kingdom of Saxony is 5795 square miles, and in 1885 the population was 3,182,003, or 549 to every square mile. The people are chiefly German, but

in the eastern districts there are about 50,000 Wends, who speak their own Slavonic dialect.

The soil is diligently cultivated, and in the part belonging to the great plain is very fertile. Cattle of fine breeds are also reared. But so great a population could not be maintained by agriculture alone. Saxony has rich ores of silver, copper, tin, lead, iron, and other minerals, and in the south-west it has a great coal-field, which pro-

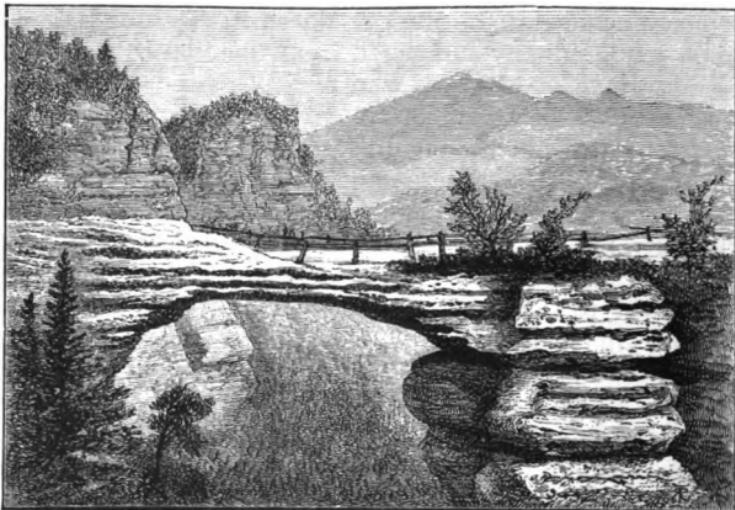


FIG. 19.—SAXON SWITZERLAND.

vides fuel for iron works, textile factories, and other manufacturing industries.

The country is ruled by a king and a Parliament, which consists of two chambers. The court belongs to the Roman Catholic Church, but the vast majority of the people are Protestants.

The capital is DRESDEN (pop. 246,086), an attractive city in a pleasant part of the valley of the Elbe, on both sides of the river. The Elbe is crossed by two bridges, from one of which, the old bridge, there is a splendid view of the heights of Saxon Switzerland. Among the buildings of the city are the Frauenkirche, with a lofty spire, a church built in the eighteenth century; the royal palace,

an irregular structure begun in the sixteenth century, and finished in the eighteenth ; and the Zwinger, the vestibule of what was intended to be a vast palace. Dresden is less remarkable for its architecture than for its magnificent collections of artistic, literary, and scientific treasures. Its gallery of paintings is one of the finest in Europe. The city has a famous Academy of Arts, important scientific societies, and a great variety of educational institutions. Among its chief industrial products are porcelain and objects made of gold and silver.

Farther down the Elbe, in a fine situation on the left bank, is MEISSEN, the oldest town in the kingdom. It was founded by Henry I. On a precipitous rock overlooking the Elbe are an ancient and beautiful cathedral and an old castle, in which in 1710 a porcelain factory was established, where Dresden china is still made. This was the first porcelain factory in Europe.

LEIPZIG (pop. 170,340), originally a Slavonic town, lies in the fertile valleys of the Elster and the Pleisse, which here flow close to one another, and unite about three miles below the town. Natural lines of communication between many parts of Germany meet in Leipzig, so that for centuries it has had a great commerce. It is the centre of the German book trade, and in the course of the year has three famous markets. Leipzig is the seat of the imperial court of justice, and has a university second in Germany only to that of Berlin, and a famous conservatorium of music. It was the birthplace of Leibniz and Richard Wagner. In the neighbourhood were fought two great battles, one in 1631, the other in 1813.

FREIBURG (pop. 27,042), near the Mulde, is the centre of a district full of silver mines. CHEMNITZ (pop. 110,817), in the valley of the river of the same name, is the chief manufacturing town of Saxony, and is especially famous for its cotton and woollen fabrics. PLAUEN (pop. 42,848) and ZWICKAU (pop. 39,243) are the centres of coal-producing districts.

The eastern districts consist of lands which were formerly included in the upper part of the March of *Lausitz*. The capital of Upper Lausitz was BAUTZEN, on

the Spree. Near it a battle was fought in 1813. ZITTAU (pop. 23,215), on the Mandau, is the chief seat of the Saxon linen trade. It has a fine town hall. Among the smaller towns of this district is CAMENZ, the birthplace of Lessing.

**26. Thuringia.**—Of the Saxon states of *Thuringia* the most important is the Grand Duchy of SACHSEN-WEIMAR-EISENACH. The capital is WEIMAR (pop. 21,565), pleasantly situated on the Ilm. It is famous as the city where Goethe lived for more than half a century. There also lived Schiller, Herder, and Wieland. At JENA there is a university. EISENACH is a picturesque old town, in the neighbourhood of finely wooded hills and fertile valleys. On a height above it is the **Wartburg**, famous in the history of mediæval poetry, and as the castle in which Luther found shelter during the most stormy period of his career.

The only towns in the Duchy of SACHSEN-COBURG-GOTHA—of whose reigning house the Prince Consort, the husband of Queen Victoria, was a member—are Gotha and Coburg. GOTHA (pop. 27,802) was originally a village belonging to the abbey of Hersfeld. It is a pleasant town, built around a hill on which is a castle, now used as a museum. At Gotha is the famous geographical establishment of Justus Perthes. COBURG (pop. 16,210) is beautifully situated in the valley of the Itz. In the highest part of the town is the ducal palace.

The capital of the Duchy of SACHSEN-MEININGEN is MEININGEN (pop. 11,448), in the valley of the Werra. Near it, on an isolated hill, is the picturesque castle of Landsberg. SONNEBERG has a great trade in toys. At LIEBENSTEIN there are mineral springs.

At ALtenBURG (pop. 29,110), the capital of the Duchy of SACHSEN-ALtenBURG, there are textile factories. On a rock near the town is the ducal palace, one of the largest palaces in Germany.

There are two principalities of REUSS, one ruled by a member of the elder, the other by a member of the younger branch of the reigning family. Since the twelfth century all the sons of this family have been called Heinrich, each receiving a number (Heinrich I, Heinrich II, Heinrich III,

and so on) in accordance with the order of his birth. In the elder branch they go on to the number 100, and then begin again with 1 ; in the younger branch they begin every new century with number 1. Most of the territory ruled by the prince of the elder branch is his private property. The capital of his principality is GREIZ (pop. 17,228), an old town in a charming part of the valley of the Elster. The capital of Reuss of the younger branch is GERA (pop. 34,152), also in the valley of the Elster. It has woollen and other manufactures.

Two principalities are ruled by the house of Schwarzburg—Schwarzburg-SONDERSHAUSEN and Schwarzburg-RUDOLSTADT. The capital of the former is SONDERSHAUSEN, prettily situated at the point where the Wipper and the Beber meet. A more important town is ARNSTADT (pop. 11,537), with markets for corn and timber. It has a beautiful old church and a fine town hall. RUDOLSTADT (pop. 10,562), the capital of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, is pleasantly situated on the Saale.

**27. Anhalt.**—The Duchy of ANHALT consists of a district in the great plain, watered by the Elbe, the Saale, and the Mulde, and of several smaller isolated districts, the chief of which takes in some of the eastern spurs of the Harz mountains. Anhalt, which has often been divided, formed part of the great Duchy of Saxony, but has been essentially independent since the twelfth century. Agriculture is the chief industry, but there are mines in the district near the Harz. The capital, DESSAU (pop. 27,766), on the Mulde, has important woollen markets. It was probably founded by Flemish settlers, in the time of Albert the Bear. It was the birthplace of Moses Mendelssohn and the poet Wilhelm Müller, the father of Professor Max Müller. CÖTHEN, near the Ziethe, and BERNBURG, on the Saale, are industrial and trading towns.

**28. Waldeck-Pyrmont.**—The small state of WALDECK-PYRMONT consists of two principalities, the chief of which, Waldeck, to the south-east of Westphalia, consists for the most part of uplands. Pyrmont lies in the hilly district of the Weser. AROLSEN, the capital of Waldeck, was the birthplace of the sculptor Rauch and the

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painter Kaulbach. The town of PYRMONT has mineral springs.

**29. Lippe.**—The principality of LIPPE lies between the Weser and the southern slopes of the Teutoburg Forest. The capital, DETMOLD (pop. 8913), is an old town on a hill overlooking the Werre. Near it is a great statue set up in honour of Arminius, the hero who led the Germans in their struggle with the Romans for independence.

Schaumburg-Lippe, on the opposite side of the Weser, was separated from Lippe in the seventeenth century. BÜCKEBURG, the capital, is a small town which grew up around a castle of the reigning family.

**30. Brunswick.**—The Duchy of BRAUNSCHWEIG, or BRUNSWICK, forms a part of the territory which belonged to Henry the Lion, and which he was allowed to retain after he had been deprived of the rest of his lands. It consists of three chief territories and several smaller districts. The most important of these territories is the one watered by the Oker, which flows northward from the Harz between ranges of low hills. The second territory lies between the north-western part of the Harz and the Weser; the third takes in the south-eastern part of the Harz, with some of its spurs towards the east. The area of the whole is 1526 square miles, and there are 372,452 inhabitants, most of whom are Protestants. Agriculture and mining are the chief industries, and there are some manufactures.

The capital is BRUNSWICK (pop. 85,174), a pleasant town on the Oker, mentioned for the first time in a document of the eleventh century. It was made important by Henry the Lion, and afterwards became a leading member of the Hanseatic League. It has many old buildings, including a cathedral and the fine churches of St. Andrew and St. Catherine. In the museum there is a valuable collection of paintings and other works of art. Among the most interesting ornaments of the town are a magnificent bronze statue of Lessing, by Rietschel; and an old bronze lion, said to have been brought by Henry the Lion from Constantinople in 1166. The town has an important trade; and it manufactures, among other things, tobacco and chicory. It is also famous for "mumme," a kind of

strong beer, formerly much used in England, and called "mum." Farther up the Oker is WOLFENBÜTTEL, with a great library, of which Lessing was the librarian during the last eleven years of his life.

**31. Oldenburg.**—The Grand Duchy of OLDENBURG consists chiefly of the Duchy of Oldenburg, lying between the north-eastern and the north-western districts of Hanover, and taking in the part of the coast in which the North Sea has cut out Jahde Bay. The reigning family is said to be descended from Wittekind, the leader of the Pagan Saxons in their struggle with Charles the Great. In 1460 a member of this house was elected to the throne of Denmark, and his dynasty inherited Oldenburg in 1667. In 1773 Christian VII of Denmark, in return for the recognition of his claims in Schleswig-Holstein, made over the duchy to the Grand Duke Paul of Russia, who gave it to his cousin, by whose branch of the Oldenburg family it continues to be held. In 1811 Oldenburg was annexed to France, but the Congress of Vienna restored it to its native ruler, and gave him also the principality of Lübeck, to the south-east of Holstein, and the principality of Birkenfeld, a territory surrounded by the Rhenish province of Prussia. Both of these principalities are still united with the Duchy of Oldenburg. The grand duchy, which includes all these districts, has an area of 4149 square miles, with a population of 341,525. Most of the people are Protestants.

The Duchy of Oldenburg is a level country, watered by the Hunte and the Soeste, the former a tributary of the Weser, the latter of the Ems. It includes much marshland and moorland. The marshland lies near the coast, and is inhabited chiefly by Frisians. In the dry districts of the interior the population is of the Saxon stock. The chief industries are agriculture and fishing, but the country produces tobacco, linen and woollen fabrics, and brandy. The capital is OLDENBURG (pop. 19,937), a prosperous town on the navigable Hunte, with a considerable river traffic and cattle and horse fairs.

The capital of the Principality of Lübeck is EUTIN, pleasantly situated on a lake of the same name; the birthplace of the poet Voss and the philosopher J. H. Jacobi.

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**32. Mecklenburg.**—The country called MECKLENBURG includes two Grand Duchies—*Mecklenburg-Schwerin* and *Mecklenburg-Strelitz*. They are ruled by two branches of the same family, and have one Diet in common. Mecklenburg-Schwerin, which is much the larger of the two states, has an area of 5080 square miles, and 575,152 inhabitants, nearly all of whom are Protestants. Mecklenburg-Strelitz consists of two widely separated districts—Stargard, to the south-east of the greater state, and Ratzeburg, to the north-west. It has an area of 1130 square miles, and 98,371 inhabitants.

After the great Teutonic migration of the fifth century this district was occupied by Slavonic tribes, who, from the tenth century, carried on a constant struggle with German invaders and settlers. In the twelfth century they were conquered by Henry the Lion, who, however, allowed them to be ruled by a native prince, Pribislaus, as his vassal. From this prince is descended the reigning family, which is therefore of Slavonic origin.

Mecklenburg is crossed from south-east to north-west by the Ural-Baltic ridge, and it has a considerable line of coast on the Baltic. It is remarkable for the number and variety of its lakes, and in the south-west is well watered by several tributaries of the Elbe. Most of the nobles and of the inhabitants of the towns are Germans. The people of the rural districts speak Platt-Deutsch, but belong mainly to the Slavonic race. The soil is generally fertile, and the chief industries are tillage and the rearing of horses and cattle. In both Grand Duchies a large part of the land is included in the grand ducal estates, and most of the remainder belongs to the nobles and towns. The rural population consists chiefly of agricultural labourers, and a larger number of this class emigrate from Mecklenburg than from any other part of Germany of the same extent.

The capital of Mecklenburg-Schwerin is SCHWERIN (pop. 31,528), charmingly situated near the lake of the same name, with several smaller lakes lying among wooded hills in the neighbourhood. It has a fine cathedral. WISMAR and ROSTOCK were important Hanseatic towns, and have been allowed to retain some of their ancient liberties. They are

both ship-building towns, and have a considerable trade. Rostock (pop. 39,356) has a university. In the neighbourhood of Wismar is the village of Mecklenburg (from an old word "mikel" or "michel," great, and "burg," a fortress). This was the chief settlement of the Germans in the district in the twelfth century, and its name was extended to the entire principality. The village of STAVENHAGEN, near the Pomeranian border, was the birthplace of Fritz Reuter, who, in tales written in Platt-Deutsch, has given vivid pictures of the village life of Mecklenburg.

The chief towns in Mecklenburg-Strelitz are NEU-BRANDENBURG and NEU-STRELITZ; the latter a regularly built town of the eighteenth century, the former a town of the thirteenth century, with great Gothic gateways.

**33. Lübeck, Hamburg, and Bremen.**—The free cities of Germany are Lübeck, Hamburg, and Bremen. They were great Hanseatic towns, and Lübeck was considered the central city or capital of the League. Napoleon annexed them to France, but they secured their independence after his downfall. Each of them has a small territory, and has absolute control over its local affairs, being connected with the Empire only for purposes which it has in common with the rest of Germany.

LÜBECK (pop. 55,399) was originally a Slavonic town, but became important only after the Baltic coast was colonised by Germans. It is built on a narrow eminence which slopes on the western side to the Trave, on the eastern to the Wackenitz. On the ridge of this eminence is the chief thoroughfare, from which the other streets pass down towards one or other of the two streams. With its old gates and walls, its lofty towers and gabled houses, Lübeck retains much of the appearance it must have had during the middle ages. Its finest building is St. Mary's church, one of the grandest Gothic churches in northern Europe. It has also an old cathedral, and a picturesque town hall. The trade of Lübeck is less important than it was in the great days of the Hansa, but it is still considerable, the chief articles of export being corn, wool, iron, and horses. Its harbour is at TRAVEMÜNDE, a watering-place; but the

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Trave has been artificially deepened, and admits rather large vessels.

HAMBURG (pop. 305,690) was founded by Charles the Great as a fortress and episcopal see on the borderland between the Germans and the Slavs. From the thirteenth century onwards its importance as a commercial centre increased ; and towards the end of the eighteenth century its trade received an impetus from intercourse with the United States of America. It is now the chief seaport on the continent, and a large proportion of the foreign trade of Germany passes through it. Hamburg is built on the right bank of the Elbe, within easy reach of the sea. From Holstein comes the river Alster, forming two small lakes, one without, another within, the city, and flowing from the latter lake to the Elbe through a large number of canals. On the left bank of the Alster lies the Altstadt ; on the right, the Neustadt. Between these districts, overlooking the Alster, is the Neubau, containing the residences of the wealthy classes. Hamburg has many important educational institutions, and institutions for the benefit of the sick and the poor. It has two mediæval churches. Among its modern buildings is the church of St. Nicholas, built from designs by Sir Gilbert Scott in commemoration of a great fire which destroyed about a fifth of the city in 1842. The Neubau took the place of the houses that had been burned down. CUXHAVEN serves as a port for Hamburg.

BREMEN (pop. 165,255) was originally a fishing village, but became important enough to be made, in the time of Charles the Great, the seat of an archbishopric. It lies in a valley on both sides of the Weser, which is crossed by two bridges. It has an ancient cathedral, and among its other old buildings is the town hall, with a famous wine-cellars, in which the Rhine wines are classified according to age and the vineyards they come from. Bremen has many important industries, the chief of which is the manufacture of cigars ; but its prosperity depends mainly on the trade it carries on with the United States and other countries. A vast number of emigrants sail from Bremen. It has a fine mercantile navy, inferior in Germany only to that of

Hamburg. Its chief port is BREMERHAVEN, built on a site bought by Bremen from Hanover in 1827.

*South Germany.*

**34. Bavaria.**—We come now to the states of southern Germany, the most important of which is Bavaria, the second largest state of the Empire.

In former times BAVARIA was a duchy, and lay chiefly in the basin of the Inn. At the height of its greatness as a duchy it included Tyrol and Styria. In the twelfth century it was granted by Frederick Barbarossa to Henry the Lion, who already possessed the Duchy of Saxony; but it was afterwards taken from him, and, shorn of Styria and Tyrol, granted to Otto of Wittelsbach, by whose descendants it has ever since been held. Bavaria was made an electorate during the Thirty Years' War, and a kingdom in 1806. The kingdom includes the Rhenish Palatinate, which was inherited by the house of Wittelsbach in the thirteenth century.

Bavaria takes in the larger part of the great table-land which stretches northward from the Swiss plateau, and is watered by parts of the Danube and the Main, with some of their tributaries. The valleys, especially those of the Main and the Danube, produce much wheat. Hops and tobacco are also largely grown, and wine is produced on the banks of the Main and in the Rhenish Palatinate. Cattle are reared in the uplands, and especially among the hills of the Bavarian Alps. Considerable quantities of iron ore are raised, and in the Rhenish Palatinate quicksilver is found. The chief manufacturing industry is the brewing of beer, for which hops are cultivated. There are also important iron works, and several towns are famous for their watches and other mechanical products.

The constitution is a limited monarchy, and Parliament consists of two chambers, the members of one of them either holding their seats by hereditary right or being appointed by the crown, those of the other being chosen by a body elected by the people.

The kingdom has an area of 29,375 square miles, and

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5,420,199 inhabitants, most of whom are Roman Catholics.

The capital is MÜNCHEN, or *Munich* (pop. 261,981), on the Isar. It lies in a rather desolate and wind-swept part of the table-land, but commands fine views of the northern Alps. It was a town of some importance in the twelfth century, but did not become a great city until recent times. King Lewis I, who mounted the throne in 1825, was a man of artistic tastes, and he and his son and successor, Maximilian, caused many great buildings to be erected, and strove to make their capital the chief centre of art in Germany. Of the older buildings the chief is the cathedral, whose towers are visible from a great distance on the table-land. The basilica of St. Bonifacius is a fine modern church, built in imitation of the Roman basilicas of the fifth and sixth centuries. In the old Pinakothek there is a splendid collection of prints and drawings, in the new Pinakothek a picture gallery, in the Glyptotheke a collection of the works of ancient and modern sculptors. The Ruhmeshalle contains busts of illustrious Bavarians, and opposite it stands a vast bronze statue representing Bavaria. This figure is so immense that in the head, to which the visitor mounts by stone steps in the pedestal, and by an iron staircase within the statue, there is a chamber having on each side a seat capable of accommodating six persons. From a window in the hair one looks out towards the Tyrolese Alps. Munich has a great university, a magnificent public library, and a polytechnic school. It produces an enormous quantity of Bavarian beer, and is famous for its work in iron and bronze. Farther down the Isar are FREISING, an old episcopal city, and LANDSHUT, an ancient town with many quaint buildings; it lies in a fertile valley, and has numerous breweries.

On the Saalach is REICHENHALL, surrounded on three sides by mountains. Here are the oldest salt-works in Germany. High up among the mountains is the village of OBERAMMERGAU, where, in fulfilment of a vow taken by the villagers in 1634, when they were suffering from the pestilence, a Passion Play is represented once every ten

years. **BERCHTESGADEN**, near the Königssee, lies in a district remarkable for its finely picturesque scenery.

**AUGSBURG** (pop. 65,905), on the Lech, occupies the site of the Roman *Augusta Vindelicorum*, a colony planted in the territory of a people called the *Vindelici*. It was made a free city in 1276, and became one of the chief centres of trade between Germany and Italy. Many imperial diets were held in it, and the Augsburg Confession connects it closely with the history of the Reformation. It is still a great trading town, and is famous for its gold and silver ware, and for its printing establishments. The architecture of the city shows many traces of Italian influence. Among the public buildings are a cathedral, and a beautiful town hall of the seventeenth century. The streets are adorned with numerous old bronze fountains.

**KEMPTEN** and **IMMENSTADT**, on the Iller, are industrial towns, the latter with linen, the former with cotton factories; and Kempten is also important as a centre of trade. **LINDAU** is a town built on islands in the Lake of Constance, of which it commands fine views. It is connected with the mainland by bridges.

The Danube is so important a means of communication that many towns have been built in its valley. **DONAUWÖRTH**, at the point where the Danube is joined by the Wörnitz, is now small, but was formerly a prominent free city. Not far from it—farther up the Danube—is **BLENEHEIM**, where the Duke of Marlborough won one of his greatest victories. **INGOLSTADT**, on the left bank of the Danube, was a favourite imperial residence in the ninth century. It is strongly fortified. **REGENSBURG**, or **RATISBON** (pop. 36,093), lies on the right bank of the Danube. On the opposite side of the river is **Stadt am Hof**, connected with the greater town, of which it is regarded as a suburb, by an ancient stone bridge. Regensburg is built on the site of the Roman *Reginum*, and during the middle ages was one of the most prosperous of the German free cities. It is irregularly built, with many high gabled houses, and has a great cathedral and a beautiful town hall, where the imperial Diet sat from the middle of the seventeenth century to the break-up of the Holy Roman Empire.

The town lies in one of the most fertile districts of Bavaria, and this, combined with its position on the Danube, secures for it a valuable trade. Regensburg was the birthplace of Kepler. Near it, on a height, is Walhalla, a building erected by Lewis I in imitation of the Parthenon, and containing busts of famous Germans. STRAUBING is a pleasant town in a district so fertile that it has been called the Paradise of Bavaria. PASSAU has a fine natural position at the point where the Inn flows into the Danube.

The basin of the Main includes much of the district called Franconia, a great part of which was added to Bavaria early in the nineteenth century. On the Main is BAIREUTH (pop. 23,559), a beautiful old town in a valley surrounded by hills. Jean Paul Richter lived and died in it, and it has a theatre devoted to the representation of Wagner's operas.

SCHWEINFURT and OCHSENFURT are centres of great corn-growing districts. KISSINGEN has baths, and attracts many visitors in summer. WÜRZBURG (pop. 55,010) lies chiefly on the right bank of the Main, under a precipitous rock on which was built by St. Kilian, an Irish missionary of the sixth century, the earliest church in Franconia. From this church the rock is called Marienberg or Frauenberg. Würzburg has a splendid cathedral, and in the Neumünsterkirche are the graves of St. Kilian and his comrades, and of Walther von der Vogelweide, a great German poet of the twelfth century. The episcopal palace is one of the finest palaces in Germany. The city has a university, and carries on an important trade. It has long been famous for its wines. ASCHAFFENBURG, which receives its name from the Aschaff, a river flowing into the Main below the town, was in former times a favourite residence of the Electors of Mainz.

Of the towns on tributaries of the Main, CRONACH, on the Rodach, is memorable as the birthplace of the painter Lucas Cranach. On the Regnitz is BAMBERG (pop. 31,521). It has a splendid Romanesque cathedral, built in the eleventh century by the Emperor Henry II. This city was the chief station from which the Germans of the upper

Main won territory from the Slavs. It lies in a fertile, picturesque neighbourhood, near the point where the Regnitz joins the Main, and much trade passes through it. Farther up the Regnitz are ERLANGEN, with a university ; and FÜRTH (pop. 35,455), famous for its mirrors and work in gold and bronze. Fürth is built at the junction of the Pegnitz with the Regnitz. On the Pegnitz is NÜRNBERG



FIG. 20.—NÜRNBERG. ALBERT DÜRER'S HOUSE.

(pop. 114,891), the most picturesque of German towns, built on both sides of the Pegnitz, which is crossed by many bridges. It still preserves its old walls, which are guarded by towers, and have gateways through which the inner part of the town communicates with the suburbs. Some of the streets are adorned with beautiful bronze fountains, and have old gabled houses with stone balconies and wood carvings. On a height within the walls is the picturesque castle, formerly an occasional residence of the emperors. Among the numerous fine public buildings are St. Lawrence church and St. Sebaldus church. In the Church of the Holy Ghost were formerly kept the imperial

insignia, now in Vienna. The town hall, with frescoes by Albert Dürer, is one of the noblest buildings of the kind in the empire. Nürnberg has a good picture gallery, and a great national museum, with a collection representing various phases of the development of German civilisation. In the sixteenth century the town was made a famous centre of art by Albert Dürer and Peter Vischer. It was raised to the position of a free city in the thirteenth century, and became the chief station through which trade from the East passed from the cities of Italy to northern Europe. Like Augsburg, it lost much of its commercial importance after the discovery of the Cape route to India. It is now the centre of the hop trade, and manufactures toys and objects made of horn and metal. ANSBACH, on the Rezat, a tributary of the Regnitz, is an industrial town, with a castle belonging to the time when it was the residence of the Margraves of Ansbach-Baireuth. ROTENBURG is built on a height overlooking the Tauber, a tributary of the Main, and, with its old walls, towers, and churches, maintains in most respects the quaint aspect of a mediæval town.

HOF (pop. 22,257), on the Saale, is a trading and manufacturing town, and is associated with the early literary efforts of Jean Paul Richter.

The *Rhenish Palatinate* includes the Haardt Mountains, with a part of the valley of the Rhine on one side, and a hilly district on the other. It is a charming country, with much beautiful scenery, a fine climate, and a fertile soil producing large quantities of wheat and wine. More than half of the population are Protestants. There are many towns, but none of first-rate commercial or industrial importance. KAISERSLAUTERN, near the centre, is a pleasant old town on the Lauter. It lies in a depression which has for ages been used as one of the chief routes from the west to the Rhine. ZWEIBRÜCKEN, on the Erbach, is so called because its old castle is built between two bridges. In this city appeared in the eighteenth century famous editions of the classics, known as "Editiones Bipontinæ." DÜRKHEIM and NEUSTADT are the centres of wine-producing districts. LANDAU is a fortified town in the picturesque

district where the river Queich quits the Haardt Mountains. On the Rhine, at the mouth of the same stream, is the fortified town GERMERSHEIM, where the Rhine may be conveniently crossed. Farther down the Rhine is SPEYER, formerly a great city, where many imperial Diets were held, at one of which, in 1529, the Reformers first received the name of Protestants. It has a fine Romanesque cathedral, founded in 1030 by the Emperor Conrad II. LUDWIGSHAFEN (pop. 21,042), on the Rhine, is the centre of a tobacco-growing district, and has a considerable river trade.

**35. Würtemberg.**—The Kingdom of WÜRTEMBERG occupies a district of which the greater part was formerly included in the Duchy of Swabia. It derived its name from the castle of Wirtineberg, on a height above the Neckar, near Cannstatt. This castle was the seat of a family which gradually won for itself a wide territory. The Count of Würtemberg was made a duke in 1495, and the duchy was enlarged and raised to the rank of a kingdom in 1806. The country includes a part of the southern table-land, and is crossed from south-west to north-east by the Swabian Jura or the Rauhe Alp. It is watered by a part of the upper Danube, but chiefly by the Neckar and its affluents. Wheat, fruit, and wine are produced in the valleys, and much of the higher ground is occupied by forests. There are considerable manufactures of woollen, linen, and silk fabrics ; and the Schwarzwald is famous for its clocks and watches.

Würtemberg has an area of 7530 square miles and 1,995,185 inhabitants, more than two-thirds of whom are Protestants. A Parliament consisting of two chambers shares legislative power with the crown.

The capital, STUTTGART (pop. 125,901), lies in a valley separated by hills from the Neckar. The greater part of the town is of recent origin, and consists of wide streets, crossing one another at right angles. It has a polytechnic school, a great library, and a museum of art ; and among its industrial products are cotton fabrics and works in iron and tin. The philosopher Hegel was a native of Stuttgart, LUDWIGSBURG, near Stuttgart, is a military centre, with a

great arsenal. CANNSTATT (pop. 18,031), on the Neckar, is finely situated on the chief route between the Rhine and the Danube, and occupies the site of an important Roman station. It was the first capital of Würtemberg, and is now much frequented in summer on account of its baths. Farther up the Neckar are ESSLINGEN (pop. 20,865), with manufactures of machinery; and TÜBINGEN, most pictur-esqueley situated, with a university. Near Tübingen, in a valley at the foot of the Rauhe Alp, is REUTLINGEN (pop. 17,319), an industrial town. Below Cannstatt, on the Neckar, are MARBACH, the birthplace of Schiller, and HEILBRONN (pop. 27,758), the centre of a wine-producing district, and a trading and manufacturing town. On a tributary of the Neckar is the village of WAIBLINGEN, where was a seat of the Hohenstaufen family, one of the most illustrious of the imperial lines. Its name became the watchword of the Imperialists in the struggle between the Empire and the Papacy, and was corrupted by the Italians into Ghibellin. WILDBAD, on the Enz, in a beautiful neighbourhood, has hot springs. On the Danube, opposite the point where it receives the Iller, is ULM (pop. 33,610). It has a great minster, the architectural centre of the town. At Ulm the trade which comes up the Danube diverges towards the Rhine and the Neckar, so that it is a place of considerable commercial importance. It is also important from a military point of view, and is strongly fortified. BIBERACH, on a small affluent of the Danube, was formerly a free city. Near it is the village of OBERHOLZHEIM, the birthplace of Wieland.

**36. Baden.**—The Grand Duchy of BADEN sprang from territories which were formerly subject to the kindred margraves of *Baden* and *Baden-Durlach*. These territories were united under the Margrave of Baden-Durlach in the eighteenth century, and in the Napoleonic period the margraviate was made a Grand Duchy, and greatly extended.

Baden includes the greater part of the Black Forest, and the eastern half of the valley of the upper Rhine. It is a long, narrow territory, skirted by the Rhine on its southern and western borders. The high grounds are covered with forests, but the valleys are carefully tilled,

and produce wheat, tobacco, and wine. In the Black Forest coal, lignite, and various ores are raised; and among the industrial products are woollen, linen, and cotton fabrics, tobacco, glass, porcelain, and the clocks and watches of the Schwarzwald.

The country has an area of 5824 square miles, and 1,601,255 inhabitants, about two-thirds of whom are Roman Catholics. The legislative power of the Grand Duke is shared with a Parliament composed of two chambers.

The capital is CARLSRUHE (pop. 61,066). Early in the eighteenth century Margrave Carl, of Baden-Durlach, built for himself a hunting lodge in the forest called the Hartwald, and from this hunting-lodge paths radiated in various directions through the wood. Gradually settlers found their way to the neighbourhood, and many of the margrave's pleasure-walks are now streets of Carlsruhe, spreading out from the Grand Ducal palace. Carlsruhe has a great polytechnic school, and produces, among other things, jewellery, carpets, and tobacco. HEIDELBERG (pop. 26,928), at the point where the Neckar escapes from the hills into the valley of the Rhine, is a famous centre of enchanting scenery. It lies on a narrow strip of level land between the Neckar and the heights which advance northward from the Black Forest. On these heights, overlooking the town, are the ruins of a superb castle, from which there are exquisite views of the Neckar, the valley of the Rhine, and the Haardt mountains. Heidelberg has a university, and is to some extent associated with English history, as it was the residence of the Electress Elizabeth, afterwards Queen of Bohemia, the daughter of James I, and the ancestress of the English royal family. MANNHEIM (pop. 61,273), built at the angle formed by the Neckar and the Rhine, is a town with wide regular streets. It is a trading and manufacturing place, and has a vast palace. PFORZHEIM (pop. 27,201) is also a manufacturing town. RASTATT (pop. 11,743) was the seat of a famous Congress in 1797-99. BADEN (pop. 12,779) lies in a picturesque position among hills connected with the Schwarzwald, on one of which are the ruins of an old castle. This town has

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mineral springs, and occupies the site of the Roman *Civitas Aurelia Aquensis*. The south-western part of the Grand Duchy, including the Black Forest, is called Breisgau. Its chief town is FREIBURG-IN-BREISGAU (pop. 41,340), the seat of an archbishopric, with a fine cathedral and a university. Eastward from this district is CONSTANCE (pop. 14,601), famous as the seat of a Council from 1414 to 1418. It lies in a fertile and beautiful region on the left bank of the Rhine, where the river unites the upper and the lower parts of the lake of Constance.

**37. Hessen-Darmstadt.**—HESSEN-DARMSTADT includes a part of the territory which Philip the Magnanimous, Landgrave of Hessen, who died in 1567, divided among his four sons. It was made a Grand Duchy, and extended, in 1806. It consists of two districts, one taking in a portion of the Rhine valley and the Odenwald; the other, north of the Main, taking in the Vogelsberg and some of the undulating ground connected with that table-land. Agriculture flourishes in Hessen-Darmstadt. It has also great forests, and produces much fruit, tobacco, and wine. Its manufactures are considerable, and it has an important trade on the Rhine and the Main. The country has an area of 2965 square miles, and 956,611 inhabitants, about two-thirds of whom are Protestants. A Parliament consisting of two chambers is associated with the Grand Duke in the work of legislation.

The capital is DARMSTADT (pop. 51,302) on the Darm. The village from which it originated received the rights of a town in the fourteenth century. Only a small portion of old Darmstadt survives; most of the city has been built in the present century. In the older of its two palaces are a great library, a famous picture gallery, and a natural history museum. OFFENBACH (pop. 31,713), on the Main, is the chief manufacturing town. MAINZ (pop. 66,321), on the Rhine, is built on the site of the Roman *Moguntiacum*. It has a magnificent Romanesque cathedral, and is the seat of an archbishopric, which was formerly one of the three spiritual electorates. Bonifacius was the first Archbishop of Mainz, and his successors held the primacy of the German Church. In the museum is a fine collection of Roman and

German antiquities. The city has a flourishing trade, and is strongly fortified. WORMS, also on the Rhine, is one of the oldest cities in Germany. On its site there was first a Keltic settlement, then a Roman city. It has a massive Romanesque cathedral, and a great monument of Luther, who defended his principles before the imperial Diet at Worms in 1521. In upper Hessen is GIESSEN (pop. 19,002), on the Lahn, with a university.

**38. Alsace-Lorraine.**—Alsace-Lorraine, called by the Germans *Elsass-Lothringen*, is the district which was ceded to Germany by France in 1871. Alsace includes the eastern slopes of the Vosges mountains and the western part of the valley of the upper Rhine. It was for centuries subject to the Dukes of Swabia, and was afterwards broken up into a number of principalities and free cities. It passed into the possession of France in the seventeenth century. What is now German Lorraine, lying to the west of the middle and lower Vosges, forms about a fifth part of the ancient Duchy of Lorraine. In both districts German is still the prevailing language. The entire province (called the Reichsland) has an area of 5580 square miles, and 1,564,355 inhabitants, about three-fourths of whom are Roman Catholics. The province is administered by a governor-general, appointed by the emperor. Under him are ministers, and he is aided by a council of state and a provincial committee.

Alsace is a remarkably picturesque and fertile country. The slopes of its hills are covered with woods, and rich harvests are gathered in from its valleys. It also produces wine, and has flourishing industries. Its chief city is STRASBURG, the seat of the Government of the province. Strasburg (pop. 111,987), is built on the site of the Roman *Argentoratum*. It lies on the Ill, near the Rhine, and on the canal by which the Rhine is connected with the Rhone. Near it is the chief Pass across the Vosges, and it is the principal station on the great military route from the Danube to the Seine. It is therefore strongly fortified. It has a splendid minster, and a university, opened in 1872. Among its industries and products are tobacco, linen and

woollen fabrics, and articles made of leather; and it exports great quantities of *patés de foie gras*. The chief manufacturing town of Alsace is MÜHLHAUSEN (pop. 69,759), on an island formed by the Ill. It produces cotton, muslin, and machinery. COLMAR, MÜNSTER, MARKIRCH, and GEBWEILER are also manufacturing towns.

The chief town in German Lorraine is METZ (pop. 54,072), on the Moselle. It is one of the strongest fortresses in the world, and has a great cathedral. It lies in a charming and fertile part of the valley of the Moselle.

## CHAPTER VIII

### SWITZERLAND

**1. Boundaries.**—Switzerland is wholly an inland country, being bounded on the west by France, on the north by Germany, on the east by Austria, and on the south by Italy. It takes in the greater part of the Central Alps and the Jura, and is therefore the most mountainous land in Europe.

**2. Mountains.**—The **Central Alps**, as already noted (see p. 4), include in the west the parallel ranges of the **Pennine Alps** and the **Bernese Oberland**. Both of these ranges strike north-eastward, and they are separated from one another by the valley of the Rhone. The mountains of the Bernese Oberland take in the Finsteraarhorn (14,026 feet), the Jungfrau (13,716 feet), the Schreckhorn (13,397 feet), and other peaks almost equally lofty, and are continued in a north-easterly direction, at a somewhat lower level, by the Rhenish Alps. The loftiest heights are in the Pennine range, which includes Mont Blanc, the culminating point of the Alps. This mountain is not in Switzerland, but within the Swiss boundary are the Matterhorn (14,836 feet), and Monte Rosa (15,151 feet). East of the Pennine range are the Lepontine Alps, culminating in the St. Gothard (12,000 feet); and the Rhœtian Alps, consisting of a great table-land, with mountains, extend through south-eastern Switzerland into Tyrol.

On the southern side the Alps descend abruptly to the

plain of northern Italy, from which they present an appearance of wild grandeur unmatched elsewhere in Europe. Towards the north their descent is more gradual, the great central masses being flanked by lower heights,

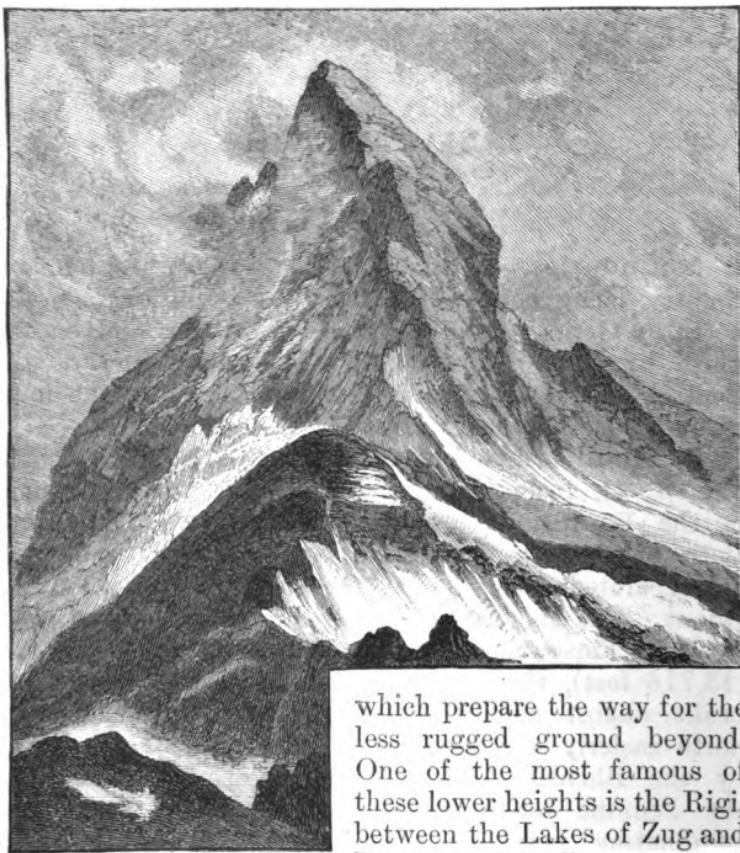


FIG. 21.—THE MATTERHORN.

which prepare the way for the less rugged ground beyond. One of the most famous of these lower heights is the Rigi, between the Lakes of Zug and Lucerne. A railway runs to the top, from which there is a widely extended view of lofty peaks, deep ravines, and vast glaciers.

Seen from a distance, the Alps appear to present an impenetrable barrier to human intercourse, but in reality they are remarkable for the number of depressions within their area. The most important of these are the longi-

tudinal valleys—that is, as already explained, the valleys which lie in the direction of the main ranges. Such are the valleys of the upper Rhone, the upper Rhine, and the upper Inn. The line followed by the central ridges is crossed by other and shorter river-valleys, such as the valley of the Rhone between Martigny and the Lake of Geneva, the valley of the upper Reuss, and the valley of the Rhine between Coire and the Lake of Constance. Communication is also facilitated by high **Passes**, which unite valleys that would otherwise be wholly severed from one another. These Passes are narrow defiles, and some of them have been made of service chiefly by the exercise of engineering skill and labour. The most famous of them are those which connect Switzerland with Italy. In the Pennine range is the Pass of Great St. Bernard, at a height of 8170 feet, bringing into relation with one another the valley of the Rhone and that of the Dora Baltea. Farther east, among others, are the Pass of the Simplon, with a road made by Napoleon in 1801-1806; the Pass of St. Gothard, connecting the valleys of the Reuss and the Ticino; and the Splügen Pass, connecting the valleys of the Rhine and the Adda. Other Passes connect one part of Switzerland with another. By the Furka Pass the valley of the Rhone is joined to the valley of the Reuss, by the Grimsel Pass to the Hasli Thal, or the valley of the upper Aar, and by the Gemmi Pass to the Bernese Oberland.

It is not only over the surface of the Alps that man is able to force his way; right through the St. Gothard a railway tunnel has been driven. It is nearly ten miles long. Starting at Göschenen and ending at Airolo, this tunnel connects the Reuss with the Ticino, and plays an important part in the trade of Switzerland, Italy, and Germany, at whose joint expense it was made.

The north-western part of Switzerland is occupied by the Jura mountains. Rising in France, they strike in a north-easterly direction towards the Rhine, beyond which, as we have seen, they reappear in southern Germany. They are formed chiefly of limestone, and in Switzerland consist of several parallel chains, parted from one

another by high and rather bleak valleys. Their forms are generally rounded, and less lofty than those of the Alps. Their highest elevations are in France, where some of them reach a height of about 6000 feet. Many parts of the Jura are covered with pine forests.

Between the Jura and the western slopes of the Alps there is a great table-land, reaching from the Lake of Geneva to the Lake of Constance. On this table-land there are numerous offshoots of both ranges, and it has an average height of 1380 feet.

**3. Rivers.**—Several of the most important rivers in Europe originate in the Alps, but only the upper parts of them belong to Switzerland. The **Rhone** rises on the western slope of the St. Gothard, and flows through a deep valley in a south-westerly direction to Martigny, where it turns towards the north-west. It enters the Lake of Geneva at Bouveret, and emerges from it at Geneva. The **Rhine** is formed by the union of three rivers, called in German the *Vorder*, *Mittel*, and *Hinter Rhein*. Of these the *Vorder Rhein* is the main stream. Like the Rhone, it rises on the St. Gothard, but on its eastern slope. It flows in a north-easterly direction to Coire, where it takes a general northerly direction to the Lake of Constance. The **Ticino** is also a St. Gothard river, rising on the southern slope of the mountain, and flowing first towards the south-east, then towards the west, till it reaches the **Lago Maggiore**. The **Inn**, rising near the Septimer Pass, flows to the Danube, maintaining in Switzerland a north-easterly direction, and passing through the valley of the Engadine. These rivers, in the upper parts of their courses, are too rapid to be easily navigable, but the Rhine can be used by small vessels as far up as Coire. More important for navigation, so far as Switzerland is concerned, is the **Aar**, the chief Swiss tributary of the Rhine. It rises near the Grimsel Pass, and, after passing through the Lakes of Brienz and Thun, flows to the Rhine through the Swiss table-land. It is navigable from the point at which it quits the Lake of Thun. At some points in its lower course it is apt to overflow its banks, but a way of escape for its surplus waters has been made by the cutting of a canal between

the Aar and the Lake of Bienne. The chief affluent of the Aar is the *Reuss*, which, rising on the St. Gotthard, flows through a splendid valley to the Lake of Lucerne, from which it escapes at Brunnen. It then flows through the Lakes of Lowerz and Zug, and joins the Aar at no very great distance from the Rhine.

**4. Lakes.**—Switzerland has numerous lakes, three of which, Lakes Neuchâtel, Morat, and Biinne, lie on the table-land at the foot of the Jura. The other lakes occupy hollows on the northern border of the Alps, corresponding to the Italian lakes on the southern border. The largest of them are the Lake of Geneva in the south-west, and the Lake of Constance in the north-east, both of which belong in part to neighbouring nations. Among the Alpine lakes wholly in Switzerland are the Lakes of Thun and Brienz, and the Lakes of Lucerne, Zug, and Zürich. All the Alpine lakes are remarkable for the magnificence of the scenery by which they are surrounded. Their most striking physical characteristics are their great depth, and the purifying effect they produce on the rivers that pass through them. The Rhone in its upper course is made turbid by the substances it collects from the mountains; when it emerges from the Lake of Geneva it has a bright blue colour, which it does not lose until it is joined by the Saône.

**5. Climate.**—The mountainous character of Switzerland gives it a remarkably varied climate. Above the height of 8000 feet on the northern slopes of the Alps, and above that of 8900 feet on the southern side, there is a region of perpetual snow, and the glaciers that fill the higher ravines descend in many cases far below these points. The cold atmosphere of the mountains, being heavier than the warm atmosphere of lower levels, descends into the valleys, so that they are colder in winter than places of the same elevation elsewhere, which are not surrounded by lofty heights. In summer, the weather of the valleys is mild and pleasant, and in all seasons the mountains usually shelter them from violent storms. In the higher valleys the atmosphere is remarkable not only for its calmness but for its dryness and purity.

The chestnut and the walnut flourish in the lower Swiss valleys, and the beech and the maple grow at an elevation of about 4000 feet. Pines extend to a level of about 5000 feet ; and above this zone, to a height of about 7000 feet, there is rich pasture-land with Alpine shrubs, such as the rhododendron, and various plants which are either peculiar to the Alps or which the Alps have in common with the Arctic regions. Some of the Alpine-Arctic plants, of which the edelweiss is the most famous, ascend to a great height, and often grow far above the snow-line in places which are too steep for the snow to find in them a permanent resting-place.

**6. Mountain Scenery.**—In former times ranges of mountains were generally regarded as excrescences on the face of the earth. They were disliked partly because of their barrenness, partly because of the dangers encountered by travellers in crossing them. Thanks to Rousseau, they began in the eighteenth century to be looked at from a new point of view ; and now every one feels the splendour and the enchantment of mountain scenery. Hence Switzerland is visited every year by an enormous number of tourists ; and its peaks and glaciers, its ravines, torrents, and lakes, may almost be said in a sense to have become the common possession of civilised mankind.

**7. History.**—In some of the Swiss lakes there still survive the piles on which, in prehistoric times, rested platforms that supported lake-dwellings ; and in association with them have been found many relics of the Neolithic and Bronze Ages. These dwellings were no doubt occupied by people belonging to one or other of the small dark races who inhabited central Europe before the coming of the Aryans. At the time of the conquest of Gaul by the Romans the lower grounds of what is now called Switzerland were held by Keltic tribes, called Helvetii, while the high valleys were inhabited by the Rhœti, perhaps the descendants of the prehistoric population. The entire country was conquered by Rome, and the western part of it was included in Gaul, the eastern in Rhoëtia, which extended through what is now Tyrol to the Danube. In Switzer-

land there are two places called PFYN, a corruption of "Fines," boundaries. One is in Thurgau, in the north-east, the other in Valais, in the south-west; and a line drawn from the one to the other represents the borderland between the two Roman provinces.

When the Roman Empire began to decay, a great part of the plateau between the Jura and the Alps, and many of the Alpine valleys, were seized by the **Alemanni**, Teutonic tribes belonging to the Suevic group. This part of the country was afterwards included in the duchy of Swabia, one of the southern districts of the German kingdom. The western regions had been taken by the **Burgundians**, and were included in the kingdom of Burgundy, which, from the eleventh century, formed, like the kingdom of Germany, a part of the Holy Roman Empire.

During the middle ages the towns and peasantry were often oppressed by the nobles; and the Dukes of Austria, of the house of Hapsburg, tried to take possession of the districts called *Uri*, *Schwyz*, and *Unterwalden*, in which they had estates. The people of these districts united for mutual defence, and in 1315 they laid the foundations of their independence by a brilliant victory gained over Leopold, Duke of Austria, at Morgarten. They were soon joined by *Lucerne*, and then by *Zürich*, *Glarus*, *Zug*, and *Berne*. Thus was formed a powerful confederacy, known afterwards as the Old League of High Germany; and its members strengthened their position by victories gained at Sempach in 1386, at Nafels in 1388, and at Stoss in 1405. In the fifteenth century they fought with Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, whom they defeated at Granson and Morat in 1476; and *Freiburg* and *Solothurn* joined the confederacy. After a war with the Emperor Maximilian, begun in 1499, *Basel* and *Shaffhausen* were also admitted, and they were followed by *Appenzell*. The league, thus increased, consisted of thirteen cantons, with which were connected various associated and subject territories, including Aargau, Thurgau, Ticino or Tessin, St. Gallen, Geneva, Neuchâtel, Valais, and Graubünden or Grisons. The League was nominally a part of the Holy Roman

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Empire until 1648, when, by the **Treaty of Westphalia**, Switzerland was recognised as an independent republic.

The cantons were loosely held together until 1798, when all parts of the country were united by the French in what was called the Helvetian Republic, under one central Government. This form of union was unsatisfactory to the people, and in 1803 Napoleon set up again the **federal system**, including in the confederation, besides the thirteen older cantons, *Aargau*, *Thurgau*, *St. Gallen*, *Grisons*, *Tessin*, and *Vaud*. In 1815, when Switzerland recovered independence, *Valais*, *Neuchâtel*, and *Geneva* were admitted into the confederation. The relations of the various cantons to one another and to the central government caused much difficulty; but in 1848 a constitution which met with general approval was established. This, as revised in 1874, is the system of government which still exists.

**8. Government.**—The twenty-two cantons of which the Republic is composed have for common purposes a national Parliament, consisting of two chambers, the *Ständerath*, or State Council, to which each canton sends two members, and the *Nationalrath*, or National Council, elected directly by the people. A federal council, with a president and vice-president, is chosen by the two chambers acting together as a federal assembly; and to this council are entrusted the duties of the executive government. No change can be made in the constitution until it has been referred directly to the whole people for approval. Berne is the capital, but the federal tribunal sits at Lausanne.

Three of the cantons—Basel, Appenzell, and Unterwalden—are each divided into two republics; and these six republics, and all the other cantons, so far as their own local affairs are concerned, are practically independent states. Most of the cantons have representative institutions, but in Appenzell, Glarus, Unterwald, and Uri, the entire male population meets periodically to pass laws and choose magistrates, thus maintaining essentially the same methods of government as those of the ancient Teutons, described in the *Germania* of Tacitus.

The army of Switzerland consists of the federal troops, in which are included all men capable of bearing arms, from the age of 20 to 32; the landwehr, consisting of all men from 33 to 44; and the landsturm, taking in all citizens not serving in either the federal army or the landwehr, from 17 to 50. The latter force can be called out only in time of war. In 1888 the numbers included in the federal army and the landwehr were 203,279.

**9. Area and Population.**—The area of Switzerland is 15,992 square miles, and in 1880 the population was 2,846,102—or 177 to every square mile. Four different languages are spoken in the republic. **German** (the Swabian dialect of High Dutch) is spoken by about three-fourths of the people, chiefly in the districts which were occupied by the Alemanni—the north-eastern part of the plateau, the valley of the Rhine, and a part of the valley of the upper Rhone. **French** is the prevailing language in the western and south-western districts, which belonged to Burgundy; and **Italian** in Tessin, and in some of the southern parts of Grisons. The fourth language is **Roumansch**, an independent tongue, descended, like Italian, French, and Spanish, from Latin. It is now used only by a small number of people in the more secluded villages of Grisons, and is a survival from the time when these villages formed a part of the Roman province of Rhœtia.

The Swiss Germans have a strong resemblance to the people of south Germany; and their literature, which is considerable, is regarded as a branch of German literature. The French and Italians of Switzerland have a similar relation to France and Italy. Notwithstanding their differences of speech and custom, the Swiss have an intense feeling of nationality, and are proud of their common republican institutions and traditions. They are a shrewd and intelligent people, and public spirit is kept alive among them by their interest in cantonal and national affairs. The dwellers in the higher valleys are especially famous for their attachment to their native land, and those of them who quit Switzerland often pine for the mountains among which they were born and bred.

**10. Religion and Education.**—The Burgundians accepted Christianity at a very early period after their settlement in parts of Helvetia and Gaul; and the southern Swabians, and the Roumansch-speaking population, were converted in the seventh and eighth centuries by Irish and Frankish missionaries. In the sixteenth century the doctrines of the Reformation spread over a great part of Switzerland from Zürich and Geneva, and gave rise to much fighting and ill-will. In 1880 the number of Protestants was 1,667,109; of Roman Catholics, 1,160,782. The form of ecclesiastical government adopted by the Swiss Protestants is Presbyterian, and their doctrines are those of Calvin.

Switzerland has an excellent system of education. Each canton provides its own popular schools; but the national Government requires that they shall be adequate to the needs of the people, that attendance at them shall be compulsory, and that fees shall not be charged. Every district has primary and secondary schools, both of which are attended by the children of all classes. The schools are most largely attended in the Protestant cantons. At Zürich the national Government maintains, for the benefit of the entire republic, a great polytechnic institution, where instruction is given in the methods of manufacture, agriculture, and forestry. At Berne, Basel, Zürich, and Geneva there are universities, each maintained by the canton in which it is situated.

**11. Industry and Trade.**—The chief industry is agriculture, which is carried on in the lower grounds. In the uplands and Alpine valleys fine breeds of cattle are reared, and these districts are famous for their butter and cheese. Wine is produced in the neighbourhood of the Lakes of Geneva and Neuchâtel, and to a less extent near those of Zürich and Constance; and in the western districts there are many carefully cultivated gardens. The soil is chiefly held by peasant proprietors.

The mining industries of Switzerland are unimportant, and the country is unfortunate enough to have no coal-beds. Nevertheless, it has many manufacturing industries, for which water-power is to a large extent used. These

industries are carried on principally in the western and northern cantons. The most valuable products are cotton and silk fabrics, embroidery, and lace ; and a great watch trade flourishes in the west and south-west. There are also some iron-works, factories of machinery, and tobacco factories.

Surrounded by some of the most advanced nations, Switzerland has good markets for her products, and she carries on a great trade with Germany, France, Italy, and Austria-Hungary. She has also active commercial intercourse with many other countries, especially Great Britain and the United States.

**12. Towns.**—Switzerland is too mountainous to have many important towns, and those which she possesses are almost all in the high plain between the Alps and the Jura. The capital, **Berne** (pop. 50,220), in the canton of Berne, was founded in the twelfth century by Berthold V, the last direct representative of the great house of Zäringen, which for several centuries ruled, in the name of the emperor, the Burgundian part of Switzerland. It is built on a peninsula of sandstone overlooking the Aar, and commands superb views of the Bernese Oberland. It has a cathedral, a university, and a palace for the federal authorities. Farther up the Aar, in the same canton, are **THUN**, **INTERLAKEN**, and **MEYRINGEN**, small towns beautifully situated, and well known as centres for tourists. Among the towns on the lower course of the same river are **SOLOTHURN**, the capital of the canton of Solothurn, formerly one of the chief towns in Upper Burgundy ; and **AARAU** and **WINDISCH** in the canton of Aargau. Windisch represents the Roman *Vindonissa*. Near it, on a height, are the remains of the castle which was the original seat of the house of Hapsburg.

**BASEL** (pop. 73,963), on the Rhine, in the canton of Basel, is the centre of the Swiss silk industry, and, having an excellent position for commerce both by land and by water, distributes the products of many parts of Switzerland. It has a university and a cathedral, in which is the grave of Erasmus, who spent many years in Basel. Near **SCHAFFHAUSEN**, in the canton of Schaffhausen, are magnificent falls of the Rhine.

ZÜRICH, in the canton of Zürich, is built on both banks of the Limmat, at the north-western end of the picturesque Lake of Zürich. It is the centre of the cotton industry, and its position on the route between Germany and Italy secures for it an important trade. It has a university and a polytechnic school. The population of the town itself is only 28,062 ; but with its suburbs—industrial villages on the shore of the lake—its population is 92,685.

ST. GALLEN (pop. 25,051) in the canton of St. Gallen, lies in the valley of the Steinach, and is the centre of the trade in embroidery. It had formerly a famous abbey, founded by the Irish saint from whom the town received its name.

LUCERNE (pop. 20,373) in the canton of Lucerne, is charmingly situated at the western end of the Lake of Lucerne. At the south-eastern end of the same lake, on the Reuss, is ALTDORF, in the canton of Uri, associated with the legends about William Tell. Farther up the Reuss, in Uri, is ANDERMATT, a famous centre for Alpine climbers.

The towns hitherto noted are either wholly or chiefly German. Of those in the districts where French is the language principally spoken, GENEVA (pop. 73,504), in the canton of Geneva, is the most important. Geneva is an ancient city, built on both sides of the Rhone, at the point where it quits the lake of the same name. No city in Europe occupies a more exquisitely beautiful site. Under Calvin Geneva played a great part during the age of the Reformation ; and in Rousseau it produced one of the most influential writers of the eighteenth century. It has a university, and is the centre of the Swiss watch trade, and of the trade in jewellery. On the northern side of the Lake of Geneva is LAUSANNE (pop. 32,954), in the canton of Vaud. It is built on the slopes of hills belonging to the Jura, with magnificent views. Lausanne is famous in English literature as the city in which Gibbon wrote the greater part of the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*. At BEX, in Vaud, there are salt mines. NEUCHÂTEL (pop. 17,035), LA CHAUX DE FONDS (pop. 24,372), and LE LOCLE, all in the canton of Neuchâtel, are famous for their watches.

Tessin, the Italian canton, has no very important town. The largest is the market town LUGANO, finely situated on the Lake of Lugano.

The canton called Graubünden or Grisons, where Roumansch survives, includes districts in which German and Italian are spoken. The chief town is CHUR or COIRE, representing the Roman *Curia Rhaetorum*. It is one of the centres of the transit trade between Germany and Italy. Among other places in this canton are DAVOS-PLATZ, famous as a resort for invalids; and ST. MORITZ, with mineral springs.

Other places with mineral springs are LEUK, in the canton of Valais; BADEN and SCHINZNACH, in Aargau; and PFEFFERS, in St. Gallen.

## CHAPTER IX

### AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

**1. Boundaries.**—Austria-Hungary is a great monarchy lying to the south-east of Germany, to the east of Switzerland, and to the north-east of Italy; with Russia to the east and north-east, and various Balkan states in the south and south-east. It takes in the greater part of the rocky eastern coast of the Adriatic, with the Gulfs of Quarnero and Trieste.

**2. Mountains, Table-lands, and Plains.**—About three-fourths of Austria-Hungary is mountainous. The western part, between Switzerland and the Danube, is occupied by the eastern Alps. These are generally less lofty than the Central Alps, but cover a much wider area. The highest parts of them are in the west, where the Rhœtian Alps advance from Switzerland into Tyrol, and are continued eastward by the Noric Alps. The main chain of these ranges is the Oetzthaler Alps, which, in the part called the **Hohe Tauern**, culminate in the **Gross Glockner** (12,460 feet). In the Rhœtian and Noric Alps there are many Passes, the most famous of which is the Brenner Pass in Tyrol. This Pass—over which a railway now runs—was much used by the Romans, and it was so often crossed by the mediæval emperors on their way to and from Italy that it came to be known as the **Kaiserstrasse**, or the Emperor's Road.

The Noric Alps become gradually less lofty as they proceed eastward. From the mountainous province of Styria they throw out spurs, which advance close to the

Danube in the province of Austria and in the western part of Hungary, where they form the **Bakonyer Wald**, a range about 2000 feet high, covered with forests of oaks, beeches, and other trees. A mountainous region in western Carinthia connects the Noric range with the Carnic Alps; and these are continued by the Julian Alps, which strike through Carniola in a south-easterly direction. The Dinaric Alps, which belong to the Balkan system, advance south-eastward from the Julian Alps. This range borders the Adriatic, and in many places its table-lands break off abruptly at the coast.

A remarkable region, called in German the **Karst**, in Italian the **Carso**, takes in a part of the Julian and Dinaric Alps, and includes much of the peninsula of Istria. It is composed of limestone, and consists almost wholly of table-lands and terraces. The rain, instead of helping to feed rivers, usually disappears underground, and thus many deep fissures and great caverns have been hollowed out. The few streams which have been formed flow aboveground only over a short part of their course. They vanish into depths below the surface, and in some cases are not seen again, but rise through springs at the bottom of the sea; in other cases they reappear in a lower part of the district, where some of them receive names different from those which they bear near their sources. The ground, undermined by natural forces, has in many places given way, so that there are numerous deep depressions, called Dolinas. As water remains for some time in these hollows, their beds are capable of cultivation, and in some of them there are prosperous agricultural villages. Elsewhere agriculture is generally rendered impossible by the absence of moisture on the surface; and in districts where vegetation might to some extent flourish, its growth is hindered by the **Bora**, a violent wind which frequently sweeps over the Karst.

Of the numerous caverns in this region the most famous is the Adelsberg Cave, at the foot of the Julian Alps. This is the largest cavern in Europe. It has many extraordinary stalactites, and at the upper end is a lake, from which a rapid stream emerges. Near the Adelsberg Cave

is the Lake of Zirknitz, the water of which sometimes disappears for several years, so that its bed becomes capable of cultivation; and the like is true of many smaller lakes. The explanation is that the fissures and caverns below the lakes sometimes have so much water that it overflows, while at other times they have so little that it does not reach the surface.

Connected with the Alps, in the north-east, are various ranges to which reference has already been made. These are the Bohemian Forest, the Erzgebirge, the Riesengebirge, and the Sudetic Mountains. They are partly in Germany, partly in Austria.

From the left bank of the Danube spread out the plains of Hungary, which are enclosed in the north, east, and south by the **Carpathians**. This range rises at Presburg, on the Danube, and, beginning with the Little Carpathians, describes a vast semi-circle, ending at Orsova, which is also on the Danube. It extends over 880 miles, and covers an area of 22,500 square miles. The range is much less lofty than the Alps, and has no glaciers or longitudinal valleys. Its highest part is in the north, where the Tatra chain—a chain consisting of granite rocks, and presenting scenes of wild desolation—culminates in **Gerlsdorf** (8700 feet). On either side of the Tatra are the Bieskid Mountains, which send out towards the north offshoots that end somewhat abruptly in the great plain of northern Europe. On the southern or inner side there are several parallel chains and terraces which descend gradually towards the Hungarian lowlands. Beyond the eastern Bieskids is the Waldgebirge, on which there are so many beech forests that an extensive district is called *Bukowina*, or the land of beeches. From the Waldgebirge the Carpathians advance towards the south, and then turn westward. Within the curve thus formed is *Transylvania*, a district filled with offshoots from the main range.

The Hungarian plains are divided in two more or less distinct districts, the upper and the lower plains. The former lie between spurs of the northern Carpathians, and stretch to the west of the Danube between spurs of the Alps. The lower plains extend eastward from the part of

the Danube which flows in a southerly direction, and take in the region between the north Hungarian and the Transylvanian mountains. In the lower plains there are many great, steppe-like tracts, called **Pusstas**, which have little moisture and scanty vegetation. The impression produced on the imagination by these vast solitudes, stretching out in all directions, without interruption, to the horizon, has often found expression in Magyar poetry.

**3. Rivers and Lakes.**—The greater part of Austria-Hungary lies in the basin of the **Danube**, which enters the country from Bavaria at Passau, and quits it at Orsova. From Passau to Waitzen it has a general easterly direction ; and in this part of its course, between Linz and Vienna, it flows through a defile which is hardly, if at all, less beautiful than the defile of the Rhine between Bingen and Bonn. Near Presburg, between the Alps and the Carpathians, it enters Hungary, passing through a narrow gorge called the Carpathian Gate. Beyond this point the Danube is divided into a number of branches, enclosing marshy islands known as **Schütten**. At Komorn it resumes its course as a continuous river, and at Waitzen it takes a southerly direction, which it maintains till it is joined by the *Drave*, when it begins to flow towards the south-east. At Orsova is the **Iron Gate**, before reaching which the Danube passes through several defiles with rapids, which make navigation difficult. The Iron Gate is a great rocky ledge, lying across the river. The Danube formerly rushed over this ledge with deafening noise, forming below it whirlpools and eddies ; and the rapid could not be passed by craft drawing more than  $2\frac{1}{2}$  feet of water. In 1848-49 the obstruction was lessened by blasting, but even now the Iron Gate (which is again being blasted) presents an insuperable barrier to vessels of more than 8 or 9 feet draught, and ships of this size can get through only at certain seasons.

The Danube is navigable over its entire course in Austria-Hungary, but its value as a means of communication is greatly diminished by the Iron Gate and by the division of the river into shifting branches in the neighbour-

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hood of the Schütten. Another disadvantage is that the Danube, in consequence of its great breadth and the force of its waters, cannot be readily bridged over. A bridge of boats uniting Neusatz and Peterwardein is the only bridge by which it is crossed between the Drave and the Theiss. When the river receives an increase of water, its channel at and above the Iron Gate does not provide an adequate outlet for it; so that, at many points higher up, the Danube and some of its chief tributaries often inundate the plains through which they pass. To some extent this evil is mitigated by embankments.

Among the tributaries of the Danube, on the right bank is the *Inn*, which, as we have seen, rises in Switzerland, and passes through Tyrol to Bavaria. Farther down are the *Enns*, the *Leitha*, and the *Raab*, coming from the Noric Alps; the *Drave*, from the Carnic Alps; and the *Save*, from the Julian Alps. The great tributary of the Danube on the left bank is the *Theiss*, which, flowing from the Waldgebirge, drains the lower plains of Hungary. Farther up, in Hungary, are the *Gran* and the *Waag*; and, beyond the Hungarian frontier, the *March*.

Austria has also the upper parts of several rivers which do not belong to the basin of the Danube. Among these are the *Etsch*, or the *Adige*, in Tyrol; the *Elbe*, with its tributary the *Moldau*, in Bohemia; the *Oder*, in Silesia; and the *Vistula*, in Galicia.

Austria-Hungary has few important lakes. The largest are **Lake Balaton**, or the **Platten See**, and the **Neusiedler See**, in the western part of Hungary. Both are shallow, and the waters of the Neusiedler See sometimes wholly evaporate. On these occasions the hollow is refilled by the *Hansag*, by which the lake communicates with the Danube. In the Alps and the Carpathians there are some small picturesque lakes.

**4. Climate.**—A comparatively warm climate is secured for Austria-Hungary by its southerly position, and by the fact that the greater part of it is sheltered by mountains from the cold winds of the north. In the parts near the Adriatic the cold of winter and the heat of summer are tempered by sea-breezes, but in the inland districts there

is a sharp contrast between the two seasons. Abundant rain falls in most of the mountainous districts and on the Dalmatian coast, but many parts of the Hungarian plains are too far away from the higher grounds to receive much rain.

**5. History.**—Most of what is now Austria-Hungary formed a part of the Roman Empire. Tyrol was included in the province of *Rhaetia*, to the east of which lay the provinces of *Noricum* and *Pannonia*. The plains of what is now Hungary, east of the Theiss, were in the great province of *Dacia*. After the break-up of the Roman Empire many of these territories were seized by people speaking Slavonic languages, whose descendants form more than half of the population of Austria-Hungary. In the ninth century a non-Aryan people, the Magyars or Hungarians, who had come from Asia, and settled for some time between the mouths of the Danube and the Dnieper, began to press westward into the land which had been Dacia, and became a terrible scourge to Germany, which they frequently invaded. In the tenth century they were so thoroughly defeated, first by King Henry I, afterwards by his son Otto I, that they settled down in the land which derives from them its present name, thus separating the Slavs of the north from those of the south. They were converted to Christianity in its Roman form, and gradually adopted the customs and institutions of western Christendom, but retained, as they do still, their own Turanian speech.

The name of “*Austria*” (German, *Oesterreich*) has been repeatedly applied to the eastern parts of kingdoms. It was so applied to the eastern part of the Frankish kingdom under the Merovingians, and to the eastern part of the north Italian kingdom. In the case in which the name has survived, it was originally used to designate a mark or march on the Danube, on the south-eastern frontier of the Kingdom of Germany. This march was formed by Charles the Great, who intended that it should protect Bavaria from the Slavs and other enemies. Afterwards it served chiefly as a protection from the Magyars. In the twelfth century the march was separated from Bavaria by Frederick Barbarossa, and made a duchy; and

soon afterwards *Styria* or *Steyermark* was added to it. Styria had been a part of the Duchy of *Carinthia*, which, like Austria, had been formed as a south-eastern march.

To the north-east of Austria was *Bohemia* (German, *Böhmen*), a land which, like Bavaria, derived its name from the Boii, a Keltic people by whom it was occupied for several centuries before the Christian era. Between the years 80 and 70 B.C., the Boii were driven from Bohemia by the Marcomanni, a confederation of German tribes. After the departure of the Marcomanni in the fifth century, the country was taken by tribes belonging to the Czech group of the Slavonic race. They were subdued by Charles the Great, and their land afterwards formed a part of the German kingdom; and much of it came gradually into the possession of German settlers. One of the dukes of Bohemia was made a king by the Emperor Henry IV in the eleventh century; another received a like honour from Frederick Barbarossa in the twelfth; and in the thirteenth the crown was made hereditary in the family of the native rulers by the emperor Frederick II.

In the thirteenth century, when the House of Babelsberg, which had long held Austria, died out, a Bohemian king, Ottocar, made himself master of the Austrian lands, and of *Tyrol* (originally a Bavarian county), *Carinthia*, and *Carniola*. These territories were taken from Ottocar by Rudolph, the first emperor of the house of Hapsburg; and thus they came into the possession of the Hapsburg family, some immediately, some at later times. In 1382 the Hapsburgs obtained access to the sea by securing Trieste, and at the end of the fifteenth century they enlarged their dominions on the Adriatic by the annexation of the county of *Görz*, in which was the ancient city of Aquileia.

From 1438, when Albert II received the imperial crown, all the emperors (with one exception) belonged to the Hapsburg dynasty. The archdukes (as the Austrian dukes were called from the fifteenth century), were thus enabled to strengthen their hold over, and to extend, their hereditary territories. In 1526 Lewis II, king of Bohemia and Hungary, was killed at the

battle of *Mohacs*. Ferdinand, the Archduke of Austria, who became emperor after the death of his brother Charles V, was the son-in-law of king Lewis, and was chosen to be his successor both in Bohemia and in Hungary ; and from that time Bohemia has continued to be subject to the house of Hapsburg. Frederick V, the Elector Palatine, and husband of Elizabeth, the daughter of James I of England, was, indeed, elected king in 1619, but he was defeated, and had to fly from Bohemia, in the following year. After his defeat Protestantism, which had been the prevailing form of religion in the country, was sternly crushed ; and Bohemia sank from the position of an important kingdom to that of a province.

Since 1526 the house of Hapsburg has been connected with Hungary also, but in a different way. The result of the battle of Mohacs was that the greater part of Hungary was subject to the Turks for about 160 years. During this time the Austrian rulers held only the portion of the country which was not under Turkish supremacy, and even there they maintained their ground with difficulty. In 1686 the Turks lost Buda, their chief Hungarian stronghold, and in 1699 they made over Hungary to Austria, which at the same time obtained Transylvania.

In 1740 Austria lost most of *Silesia*, but by the partitions of Poland she obtained *Galicia*, and in 1776-86 she took *Bukowina*, claiming it as a territory which had formerly belonged to Transylvania. In 1814 she secured *Dalmatia*, which had been subject to the Venetian republic. By the Treaty of Utrecht, in 1714, Austria had obtained the Spanish Netherlands, and she had also great territories in Italy. The former were taken from her at the time of the French Revolution, the latter in 1859 and 1866. In 1876 she undertook to administer *Bosnia* and *Herzegovina*, which had belonged to the Ottoman Empire. These districts are in reality, although not nominally, a part of Austria-Hungary.

In 1806 Francis II resigned the imperial crown, which he wore as the head of the Holy Roman Empire, and called himself Emperor of Austria, which included only his hereditary territories. The Austrian Empire was the

leading member of the German Confederation formed in 1816 ; but in 1866, after a war with Prussia, it was wholly excluded from Germany. The political system in accordance with which the various parts of the monarchy are held together was established in 1867.

**6. Government.**—Austria-Hungary consists of two parts, each composed of a group of territories. These groups are supposed to be parted from one another by the river *Leitha*, and are called respectively the Cisleithan and the Transleithan provinces. Over the *Cisleithan* group the sovereign rules as Emperor of Austria, over the Transleithan as King of Hungary. The Cisleithan provinces are Upper and Lower Austria, Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Galicia, Bukowina, Salzburg, Tyrol, Vorarlberg, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Görz, Trieste, Istria, and Dalmatia. *Transleithania* includes Hungary, Transylvania, Croatia, and Slavonia.

Each of the Cisleithan provinces has a diet of its own for the management of its local affairs, and all are represented in the Reichsrath, a central Parliament meeting at Vienna. This Parliament consists of two chambers, one composed of princes of the reigning family, nobles, archbishops and bishops whose sees give them princely rank, and members appointed for life by the emperor ; the other, of representatives elected either directly or indirectly by the people. The Executive consists of ministers nominated by the emperor, and responsible to the Reichsrath.

Of the Transleithan countries, Croatia and Slavonia have a local diet in common. They are also represented, with Transylvania, in the Hungarian Parliament, which meets at Buda-Pesth. The Hungarian Parliament, like the Austrian Reichsrath, consists of two chambers ; the House of Magnates, composed chiefly of hereditary peers, life peers, and princes of the reigning family ; and the House of Representatives, elected by the people. Ministers responsible to Parliament are appointed by the crown.

Affairs common to the entire monarchy are regulated by a body called the Delegations, consisting of 120 members, 60 of whom are chosen by the Austrian Reichsrath, 60 by the Hungarian Parliament. They meet alternately

in Vienna and Buda-Pesth, and deal only with matters relating to foreign relations, war, and common finance. A minister of foreign affairs, a minister of war, and a minister of common finance, are appointed by the crown, and are responsible to the Delegations.

The army is common to both parts of the monarchy. It consists of the active army, the reserve, the landwehr, and the landsturm. Every man is liable to military service, and the rule is that three years shall be spent in the active army, seven in the reserve, two in the landwehr, and ten in the landsturm. In 1888 the strength of the active army on a war footing was 905,618; but if all forces, including the landsturm, were called out, more than four millions of men would take the field. The monarchy has also a powerful navy. In time of peace the navy is manned by upwards of 7000 sailors, but in time of war the number would be upwards of 17,000. Service in the navy is compulsory on the seafaring population, but recruits are also obtained by voluntary enlistment.

#### 7. Area, Population, and National Character.—

The area of Austria-Hungary, excluding Bosnia and Herzegovina, is 240,942 square miles; that of the Cisleithan provinces being 115,903, that of the Transleithan 125,039. In 1870 the population was 35,906,085. This had risen in 1880 to 37,883,503; the population of the Cisleithan provinces being 22,144,244, that of the Transleithan 15,739,259—or 191 for every square mile in the former, and 135 in the latter.

So far as language is concerned, the population of Austria-Hungary is more varied than that of any other European land. German is the prevalent language in the most advanced parts of the monarchy; it is spoken by a population of about 10 millions, of whom about 8 millions are in the Cisleithan provinces. There are about 20 millions of Slavs, but they are broken up into groups, each speaking a Slavonic language of its own. The *Czech* language is spoken chiefly by the Slavs of Bohemia and Moravia, *Polish* and *Ruthenian* by those of Galicia, *Slovenian* by those of the southern Cisleithan provinces, *Slovak* by those of northern Hungary, and *Croatian* and *Servian* by those

of southern Hungary, Slavonia, and Croatia. Italian is the language of the southern part of Tyrol, and a portion of the county of Görz ; and Roumanian (directly descended from Latin) is one of the languages spoken in Transylvania and Bukowina. All these languages belong to the Aryan family, but the Magyars speak a non-Aryan language. This tongue is a member of the Turanian family of languages, and is allied to Finnish and Turkish—more to the former than to the latter.

In the physical characteristics of the population as a whole there is no diversity corresponding to this remarkable diversity of speech. The vast majority of the people, German, Slavonic, Magyar, Italian, and Roumanian, belong to the type with dark hair, dark eyes, and round skulls. The blue-eyed, fair-haired, long-skulled Aryan type survives to some extent, but it is exceptional even in upper and lower Austria, and is found chiefly among the aristocracy, which may be supposed to have sprung mainly from the leaders of the Teutonic settlers in the old march and duchy.

It is hardly possible that in a country where so many different languages are used a distinctively national character could be formed. The people have too few interests in common to be, as a rule, very proud of the monarchy in which they happen to be united ; and it has always been a task of enormous difficulty to adjust the balance between the claims of the rival nationalities. The Germans of Austria-Hungary have a general resemblance to the population of south Germany ; they are quick-witted, enterprising, and remarkable for their sociability and love of pleasure. Of the Slavs, the Czechs are the brightest, most intelligent, and most progressive. The Slovenians are a vigorous and handsome people, with a reputation for honesty, industry, and good-nature ; and the Poles have the enthusiastic, impulsive temperament which characterised their forefathers in the days when Poland was one of the great powers of Europe. The Magyars are distinguished by their passion for freedom, their pride in their race and its traditions, and their readiness to sacrifice themselves for any cause which

appeals strongly to their imagination and sympathy. They are brave, hospitable, and honourable, but apt to resent with violence what they conceive to be an injury ; and they have not as a people acquired the capacity of steady application to commonplace industrial labour.

**8. Religion and Education.**—Roman Catholicism is the state religion of the Cisleithian provinces, and more than three-fourths of the people are Roman Catholics. In the Transleithian provinces no form of religion is established by the state, but rather more than half of the people belong to the Roman Catholic Church. The Orthodox Greek Church and the United Greek Church (the latter consisting of members who, although retaining the ritual of the Orthodox Greek Church, recognise the supremacy of the Pope) have many adherents, chiefly among the Croatians, Servians, Ruthenians, and Roumanians. Protestantism is strong principally among the Magyars and in Transylvania.

Education has received less attention in Austria-Hungary than in Germany, but both parts of the monarchy are well supplied with elementary schools, in several hundreds of which more than one language has to be used. Gymnasia and Realschulen, modelled on those of Germany, provide secondary education ; and technical schools have also been established. In Cisleithania there are eight universities, in Transleithania two.

**9. Industry and Trade.**—Of the industries of Austria-Hungary, agriculture is by far the most important. Notwithstanding the mountainous character of many parts of the country, about nine-tenths of the surface is in one way or another productive. Of this productive area about a third is devoted to tillage, a third to woods and forests, and the rest to pasture-land, meadow-land, gardens, and vineyards. The chief cereal crops are wheat, rye and spelt, barley and oats. Maize is grown in the valleys of the Drave, the Save, and the lower Danube, tobacco in Hungary and Slavonia, and flax in Galicia. Potatoes are grown chiefly in the northern districts. Various kinds of fruit are produced in Bohemia, Hungary, and Transylvania ; and the southern part of Tyrol is famous for its chestnuts, almonds, and figs. Wine is pro-

duced in great quantities, chiefly in Hungary. The most extensive forests are those of Transylvania. Hungary, Bohemia, and Galicia excel in the rearing of cattle, but the best cattle for milk are in the Alpine districts.

Austria is rich in mineral resources, but they have never been fully utilised. There are coal-fields in Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Galicia, Hungary, and elsewhere ; and lignite is also found in several districts. Upper Austria, Styria, Carinthia, and Bohemia produce iron ores. Transylvania has famous gold-mines, and lead and silver ores are raised in Bohemia. There are great beds of rock-salt in Salzburg, upper Austria, Galicia, and Transylvania ; and in Galicia there are also numerous brine-springs.

Manufactures flourish chiefly in the northern parts of Cisleithania, and consequently it is in these districts that the population is most dense. Bohemia is especially eminent among the manufacturing provinces ; it produces cloth, woollen, linen, and cotton fabrics, and glass. The woollen, linen, and cotton trades have also been largely developed in Moravia, Silesia, and lower Austria ; and silk fabrics are manufactured in Tyrol. Among the other industrial products of Austria are machinery, tobacco, beer, and sugar.

A great trade is carried on both by land and water, the most important part of it being the traffic between the agricultural and the manufacturing districts. Among the products sent to foreign countries are grain, pulse, and flour, woollen, linen, and silk fabrics, steel ware, timber, sugar, and wine. Wool, cotton, and colonial wares are among the imports. Many products are sent to the East by the Danube, and from the ports on the Adriatic.

### *The Cisleithian Provinces.*

10. *Austria* is divided into two provinces—the Archduchy of Austria below the Enns, or lower Austria ; and the Archduchy of Austria above the Enns, or upper Austria. The inhabitants speak German, but are a mixed people, partly of Teutonic, partly of Slavonic origin.

*Lower Austria* takes in the valley of the Danube from

the mouth of the Enns. In it is Vienna, or *Wien* (pop. 1,270,000), the capital of the Cisleithan part of the monarchy. Vienna is built on the site of the Roman *Vindobona*, near the Danube. It became the capital of the March of Austria in 1142, and rose to a position of great importance when the crown of the Holy Roman Empire was held by the Hapsburg dynasty. For more than a century it did good service to Europe as a means of protection from the Turks, by whom it was repeatedly besieged. Vienna is built on the edge of a plain stretching to the Danube from the last hills of the Wienerwald, the extreme north-eastern spur of the Alps. These hills are only a few miles distant. Along the north-eastern side of the city passes the arm of the Danube, called a canal, into which flows the stream Wien, coming from the Wienerwald. Within the angle formed by this stream and the canal lies the older part of Vienna, the "Stadt," which is still the most important district of the city. The Stadt used to be separated from the suburbs by fortifications, but these were removed in 1859, and their place has been taken by wide and handsome boulevards. Around the boulevards, called the Ringstrasse, the town spreads out over the plain. Vienna has several fine public parks, the most famous of which is the Prater, probably the largest park of the kind in Europe. The most beautiful building is St. Stephen's Church, a magnificent Gothic cathedral, built partly in the fourteenth century. This church is in the Stadt, where also are the imperial palace called the Hofburg (with a fine library), the government offices, and the residences of many of the nobles and foreign ambassadors. Vienna is the seat of an archbishopric. It has splendid collections of art, including the Belvedere, a gallery of pictures and sculptures, and the Albertina, a collection of prints and drawings. It has also a great university, especially famous for its medical school; a polytechnic institution; and academies of art and science. Its position on the Danube, near the mouth of the March, on a plain to which access is easy from many mountainous districts, gives it great advantages both as a seat of commerce and as a political capital. Vienna is the chief

centre of trade in the monarchy, and has many important industries, some of the most valuable of which are manufactures of silk, cotton, and woollen fabrics, leather, hardware, and meerschaum pipes. It is a gay and brilliant city, remarkable for the variety of nationalities represented among its inhabitants. In the neighbourhood are the palaces of Schönbrunn and Laxenburg, whose fine grounds are much frequented by the public.

The chief town in *upper Austria* is LINZ (pop. 41,687), on the Danube. It has manufactures, and serves as a centre for traffic sent to the Danube from Bohemia and the Salzkammergut. The latter is a picturesque district in the south-west of upper Austria, famous for its salt-works and iron-works. The name means "the estate of the salt chamber," the salt chamber being the Government office responsible for the state salt-works. In the Salzkammergut are the pleasant town ISCHL, with mineral springs; and HALLSTATT, near which have been found most valuable collections of antiquities, throwing much light on the period of transition between the Bronze and the Iron ages.

11. **Salzburg.**—The Duchy of *Salzburg* is an Alpine district with many lofty heights of the Noric range. It takes in the valley of the Salzach from its source to the point where it enters Bavaria on its way to the Inn. The district has little productive soil, but is rich in salt. The population is German. The chief town, SALZBURG, on the Salzach, is built on the site of the Roman *Juvavum*: it lies in the midst of splendid scenery, at a point where the Salzach flows rapidly between precipitous cliffs. On a height above the city, called the Mönchsberg, is the Hohensalzburg, formerly a fortress, now used as barracks. Salzburg is the seat of an archbishopric, and has a cathedral and other buildings in the Italian style. It was the birth-place of Mozart, a statue of whom adorns one of the squares. HALLEIN, also on the Salzach, owes its importance to a vast salt-bed discovered in 1123.

12. **Tyrol and Vorarlberg.**—The counties of *Tyrol* and *Vorarlberg*, although each has its own Diet, are placed under a common administration. *Tyrol* is divided into

two parts, a northern and a southern, by the main chain of the Rhoetian Alps. Both parts are mountainous, and in neither is there a large proportion of cultivable soil. They have, however, great forests, and in the Alpine valleys there is rich pasture-land; and in the towns there is a considerable amount of industry and trade. The *northern* part, which is much the colder

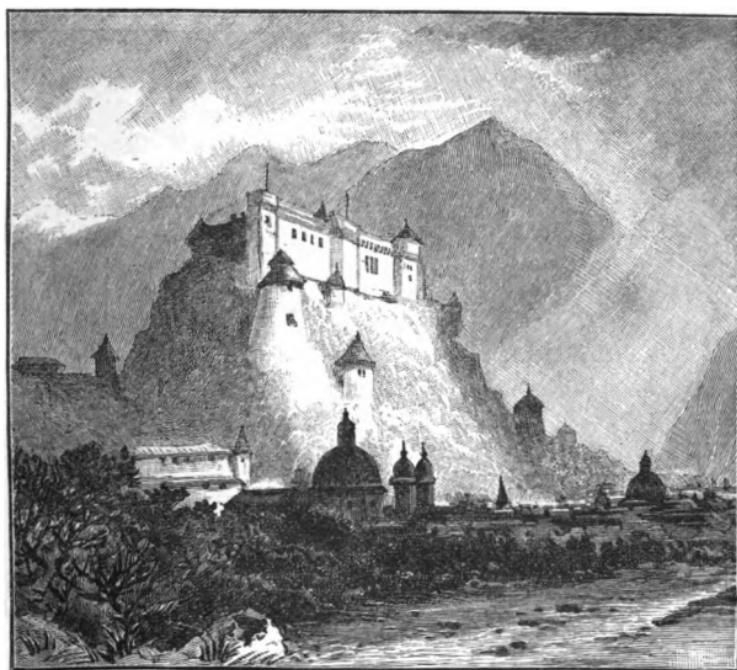


FIG. 22.—SALZBURG.

of the two, takes in a part of the valley of the Inn. It is inhabited by a German population, remarkable for honesty, simplicity of character, and devoted loyalty to the crown. The chief town is INNSBRUCK (pop. 20,537), charmingly situated on the Inn, on a line with the Brenner Pass. It lies chiefly on the right bank, but communicates with a suburban district on the left bank by a wooden bridge, from which it derives its name ("The Inn's Bridge"). Innsbruck has a university, and carries on im-

portant woollen and silk manufactures, and produces much finely carved work. Its position gives it a good transit trade, for it easily communicates with Bavaria by the valley of the Inn, and with Italy by the Brenner Pass. *Southern Tyrol*, watered by the Etsch or Adige, is famous for its grand scenery and pleasant climate. It is inhabited partly by Germans, partly by Italians, whose numbers increase as the land approaches Italy. The manufacture



FIG. 23.—INNSBRUCK.

of silk is the chief industry. BOTZEN (Italian, BOLZANO) communicates with Innsbruck by the railway over the Brenner Pass, and has much trade, with some industries. It is splendidly situated among mountains near the Adige, at the point where the Eisack receives the Talfer. Not far from it, in a still finer position, is MERAN, the old capital of Tyrol, famous as a winter resort for invalids. On the Adige are TRENT, the episcopal city in which was held the great Church Council which sought to allay the troubles due to the Reformation; and ROVEREDO, the centre of the silk trade.

*Vorarlberg* is a mountainous land to the west of Tyrol, from which it is separated in the south-east by one of the offshoots of the Rhoetian Alps, the Arlberg, which gives it its name. This chain is pierced by a railway tunnel. The province includes the upper valleys of the Lech and the Iller, and in the north-west is bordered by the Rhine. It has extensive forests and good pasture-land; and among its industrial products are cotton fabrics, lace, and Alpine huts and other works in wood. On the river Bregenz is DORNBIRN, an industrial town; and near the mouth of the same river, on the shore of the Lake of Constance, BREGENZ, where the Diet meets. FELDKIRCH, on the Ill, has a most picturesque position in a rocky defile, and is overlooked by a height crowned by a mediæval castle.

**13. Liechtenstein.**—Between the south-western part of Vorarlberg and Switzerland is the small principality of LIECHTENSTEIN, which, although in many ways under the influence of Austria, is politically independent. It is chiefly mountainous, but has a strip of level ground in the valley of the Rhine. In 1880 it had a population of 9124. It is ruled by a hereditary prince and a Diet. The reigning house is one of the oldest Austrian families, and as it is very wealthy, having many estates in Austria-Hungary, the people are happy enough to have no taxes to pay.

**14. Styria.**—The Duchy of *Styria* consists chiefly of mountainous land; only about a third of it is capable of tillage. But it has vast forests, produces much fruit and wine, and rears fine breeds of cattle. It is a great mining district, remarkable principally for its iron and coal. In the north it is inhabited by Germans, in the south by Slovenians. The capital is GRAZ (pop. 97,791), on the Mur, in a high valley surrounded by vine-clad hills. It has a university, and is the chief centre of trade between Vienna and Trieste. Farther up the Mur is BRUCK, the seat of the iron trade. MARBURG, an episcopal city on the Drave, and CILLY, on the San, are in the purely Slavonic part of Styria. The latter has hot sulphur springs.

**15. Carinthia and Carniola.**—The Duchies of *Car-*

*inthia* and *Carniola* are both inhabited chiefly by Slavs of the Slovenian stock. The former is a highland district between the Noric and Julian Alps, and throughout its entire extent is drained by the Drave. It has magnificent forests, and some mines. The capital is *LAGENFURT*, on the Glan, a tributary of the Drave; a town commanding splendid views of mountain scenery. Much trade passes through it to the south from Tyrol, Salzburg, and Styria. In the neighbourhood are many Roman remains. *VILLACH*, on the Drave, is the centre of a mining district.

The Duchy of *Carniola* is crossed from north-west to south-east by the Julian Alps, and is drained chiefly by the upper Save. Much of the soil is productive, and agriculture is the chief industry. The capital is *LJUBLJANA*, called by the Germans *LAIBACH*, on a stream of the same name, an affluent of the Drave. It occupies the site of the Roman *Emona*, and lies in a fertile valley surrounded by mountains. A considerable trade passes through it between Croatia and Carinthia.

**16. Görz.**—The county of *Görz*, the Margraviate of *Istria*, and the city of *Trieste*, although each has a Diet, are united in one administrative district. They lie on the north-eastern Adriatic coast, to the west of Carniola. Much of the territory is included in the desolate region called the Karst, but there are fertile tracts, devoted partly to tillage, partly to pasturage, and partly to forests. Slovenians are the chief element of the population, but there are also many Italians, and some Germans. *TRIESTE*, to which a small territory is attached, is essentially an Italian city. Including its suburbs and territory, it has a population of 144,844. It lies on the Gulf of Trieste, on the site of Roman *Tregeste*, and is by far the greatest Austrian seaport, and the chief trading town of the Adriatic. The old town, built on the slope of a castle-crowned hill, is separated from the new, which extends over the plain confronting the sea, by the Corso, the widest and busiest thoroughfare. In the old town, which consists chiefly of narrow streets, is the cathedral, an ancient building in the Byzantine style. Trieste has a fine fleet of steamers, which connect it commercially with the

East ; and through it passes most of the trade which Austria-Hungary carries on by sea. It has also great ship-building yards, and produces, among other things, soap, leather, and ropes. At Trieste Winckelmann was murdered in 1768.

POLA, in the Margraviate of Istria, lies on an eminence overlooking a splendid bay, and is the chief naval station of Austria. The Romans used it for a like purpose, and there are many traces of their presence, including a temple, gateways, and the remains of a great amphitheatre.

GORZ, the capital of the principality of the same name, is a pleasant industrial town near the river Isonzo. AQUILEIA, with a cathedral, is now an unimportant town, but was formerly one of the chief cities in the Roman Empire.

17. *Dalmatia*.—The Kingdom of *Dalmatia* is a long strip of territory on the Adriatic coast, becoming narrower as it advances towards the south-east. For several centuries Hungary and Venice contended with one another for the possession of Dalmatia ; but from the fifteenth to the eighteenth century it was under Venetian rule. Austria secured it by the Peace of Campo Formio in 1797, and held it until 1805, when it passed into the hands of the French. In 1814 it was again taken, with Ragusa and Cattaro, by Austria ; and in 1878 she added to it the district of Spizza, which was given up by Turkey.

Dalmatia is for the most part a desolate region, filled with the bare limestone tablelands and terraces of the Dinaric range. The coast is rocky and broken, with some good natural harbours ; and many islands have been separated from it by the sea. About nine-tenths of the people belong to the Servian and Croatian branches of the Slavonic race. Most of the other inhabitants are Italians, who dwell chiefly in the cities. One of the principal industrial products is maraschino, so called because it is made from the marasca, a kind of black cherry.

The capital is ZARA, on the northern part of the coast, opposite the island of Ugljan. It carries on a considerable trade in maraschino. Among its public buildings

is a beautiful cathedral. SPALATO, a seaport on a promontory, derives its name from a vast "palatium" built for himself by the Emperor Diocletian near the Roman city *Salona*. When this city was captured and sacked by Slavs and Avars in the seventh century, the inhabitants took refuge in the palace, and built within it a new town, which came to be known by the name it still bears. Afterwards the town was extended beyond the palace walls. Spalato has a cathedral, which was formerly a temple of Jupiter ; and an ancient temple of *Aesculapius* is now a baptistery dedicated to St. John. The town has some manufactures, and a good deal of trade passes through it from Italy into Turkey. Near it is the village of *Salona*, with many remains of the ancient city. RAGUSA was founded in the seventh century by refugees from *Old Ragusa* (built on the site of the Roman *Epidaurus*), which was destroyed by a Slavonic tribe. The new city became in the thirteenth century an aristocratic republic, and it retained the republican form of government until it was taken by Napoleon. It is built partly at the base, partly on the slopes, of the rocky Mount Sergio ; and it still has its mediæval walls and towers. Its harbour is poor, but there is an excellent one at GRAVOSA, and through this it carries on a considerable trade in oil, maraschino, and other products. CATTARO is a small town on the splendid gulf of the same name, and produces wine, olives, and citrons.

Of the islands off the Dalmatian coast several have sardine and other important fisheries. The largest of these islands is *Brazza*; the most prosperous, *Lissa*, with a fine harbour. Near Lissa a naval battle between the Austrians and the Italians was fought in 1866.

**18. Bohemia.**—Coming now to the northern provinces, we begin with *Bohemia*, the most important of them. It occupies the base of the upper Elbe, and is surrounded by high grounds. From the Archduchy of Austria and from Bavaria it is separated by the Bohemian forest, from Saxony by the Erzgebirge and the Riesengebirge, and from Moravia by the Moravian table-land. The Elbe rises on the southern slope of the Riesengebirge, flows first towards the south-

east, then towards the west and north-west, and escapes from Bohemia into Saxony by a valley which it has worn through the Erzgebirge. Its principal tributary is the Moldau, a beautiful river which comes to it from the Bohemian forest, receiving many affluents on the way.

Bohemia has an area of 20,060 square miles, and in 1880 it had a population of 5,560,819. This great population it is able to support because it is a land highly favoured by nature. About ninety per cent of its soil is productive, and more than half of this area is under tillage. The chief crop is wheat, but Bohemia is also famous for its flax, hops, and apples, and it produces a good deal of wine. In the mountainous districts are great woods, which are to some extent the survivals of primæval forests. Bohemia is rich in minerals, especially in coal, iron, lead, and silver ; and no part of the monarchy, in proportion to its size, has so many manufactures. It is particularly celebrated for its textile fabrics and for its glass.

About two-thirds of the people belong to the Czech branch of the Slavonic race ; the remaining third are Germans. The Germans occupy chiefly the northern, western, and south-western districts ; the Czechs, the central and south-eastern districts. The two peoples regard one another with jealousy, and find it hard to live together on friendly terms. Mining flourishes both in the Czech and in the German districts, but the manufacture of woollen, cotton, and linen fabrics and of glass is carried on chiefly by the Germans. Among the principal industries of the Czechs are brewing and the making of beet-root sugar.

The capital is PRAGUE (pop. 162,323), one of the most beautiful inland cities in Europe. It was an important place in the thirteenth century ; and in the fourteenth, under the Bohemian king Charles I—better known as the Emperor Charles IV—it became a great seat of industry, trade, and learning. It suffered much during the Hussite war, and during the Thirty Years' War was nearly ruined ; but in recent times it has recovered its ancient prosperity. It is the chief centre of trade in the province, and from it radiate all the great highways and main

lines of railway. It is built on both sides of the Moldau, on the slopes of hills rising from the banks of the river. On the right bank is the older part of the town, called the Altstadt, in which is a great square ("der Grosse Ring") associated with many of the most interesting events in Bohemian history. In this square is the town hall, a fine building occupying the site, and

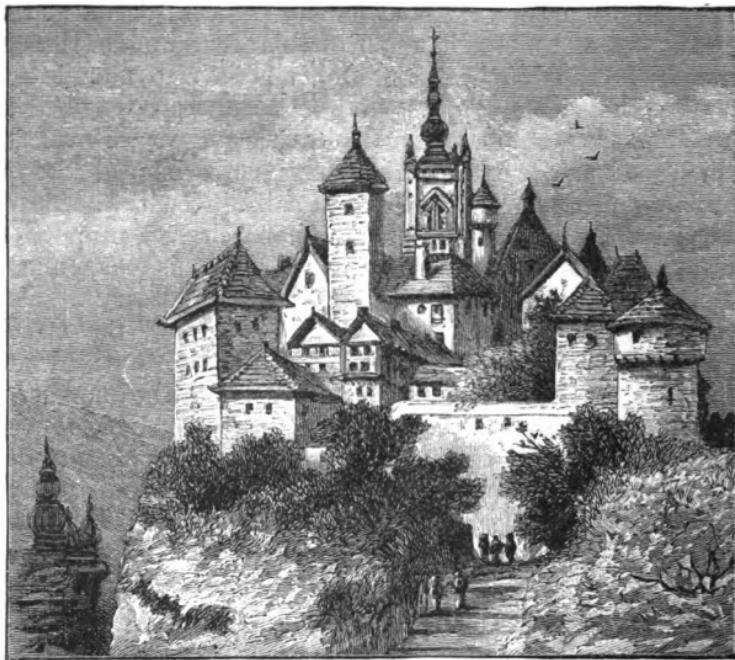


FIG. 24.—THE HRADŠIN, PRAGUE.

including some remains, of a town hall of the fourteenth century. The Altstadt consists chiefly of narrow, irregular streets, but most of the trade of Prague is carried on in it. North, south, and east of this district, on the right bank, extends the Neustadt, with wide, handsome thoroughfares. The Moldau is crossed by two bridges, one of which, Karlsbrücke, is a splendid structure. It was begun in 1358, in the time of Charles IV, and was not quite finished until 1503. Among its numerous decora-

tions is a statue of St. John of Nepomuk, the patron saint of Bohemia, whom King Wenceslaus is said to have thrown into the river because he would not reveal secrets intrusted to him in the confessional. Crossing this bridge, we come to the Kleinseite, with a fine monument of Radetzky and a palace built by Wallenstein. North of the Kleinseite is the Schlossberg, a height on which, besides other noteworthy buildings, are the great imperial palace called the Hradschin, and a beautiful unfinished cathedral, built in the fourteenth century. From the Hradschin there is a magnificent view of the city, with its fine bridge, old walls, towers, and spires. Prague has a famous university, founded by Charles IV in 1348. In the neighbourhood is the Weisse Berg, where Frederick of the Palatinate was defeated in 1620.

Of the towns in the eastern part of Bohemia, KUTTENBERG, near the Elbe, the centre of a mining district, is one of the most important. At KOLIN, on the Elbe, was fought in 1757 one of the battles of the Seven Years' War; and at SADOWA, near Königgrätz, the Prussians gained the decisive victory of the war of 1866. BRAUNAU is a manufacturing town. The chief town in the southern districts is BUDWEIS, where there are important industries. TABOR was famous in connection with the Hussite war, and HUSSINETZ is interesting as the birthplace of John Huss. In western Bohemia are PILSEN, a beautiful old town in a fertile valley, with mining and manufacturing industries; EGER, on the river of the same name, where Wallenstein was murdered in 1634; and CARLSBAD, FRANZENBAD, and MARIENBAD, all famous for their mineral springs. CARLSBAD, on the Tepl, lies in a narrow and picturesque valley, and derives its name from Charles IV, who is said to have discovered the Sprudel, its chief spring (the hottest spring in Europe), while he was hunting. The largest town in northern Bohemia is REICHENBERG, the centre of the woollen industry. FRIEDLAND, as the chief seat of Wallenstein, holds an important place in Bohemian history. Other northern towns are TEPLITZ, picturesquely situated, and well known for its mineral springs; AUSSIG, and LEITMERITZ, both on the Elbe. Leitmeritz has a beautiful

cathedral, and carries on a great trade in fruit ; and at Aussig there are extensive mines.

**19. Moravia.**—The Margraviate of *Moravia* (German, *Mähren*) takes its name from the Morava or March, in whose basin Slavonic tribes settled in the sixth and seventh centuries, making it the centre of what became for some time a great kingdom. They were conquered by Charles the Great. From the twelfth century Moravia was a margraviate, held in fief of the rulers of Bohemia ; and with Bohemia it passed to the house of Hapsburg in 1526. It is separated from Bohemia by the Moravian table-land, from Silesia by the Sudetic mountains, and from Hungary by the Carpathians. The land is intersected by offshoots from these ranges ; but it includes numerous valleys, and a great plain extends southward into the Archduchy of Austria. Moravia is watered chiefly by the March and its tributaries. Only a small part is incapable of cultivation ; most of the country is remarkably fertile, wheat and fruit being produced in the plains, flax in the hilly regions. In the south vines are grown. Extensive forests support a great trade in timber, and in the central plain called the Hanna much attention is given to the rearing of horses and geese. There are many important manufacturing industries, the chief being manufactures of linen and woollen fabrics and of beet-root sugar. About three-fourths of the people are Slavs ; the Moravian table-land and its terraces being occupied by Czechs, the Hanna by Hannaks, the slopes of the Carpathians by Slovaks, and those of the Sudetic range by Poles. Germans occupy most of the important towns.

The capital is BRÜNN (pop. 82,660), a finely situated episcopal city, built partly on the slope of a hill, partly in a valley, at the point where the Schwarzawa and the Zwittawa meet. It has woollen and other manufactures, and its trade is made valuable by its position on the lines of communication between Buda-Pesth and Prague, and between Silesia and Vienna. OLMÜTZ, on the March, lies in a marshy district. It has great fortifications, and is the ecclesiastical metropolis of Moravia. PROSSNITZ is the chief town of the Hanna. ZNAYM, on a height above the Thaya,

was formerly the residence of the margraves ; and IGLAU, on the Iglawa, in a hilly district, near the Bohemian frontier, holds a prominent position as an industrial and trading town. At AUSTERLITZ was fought a great battle in 1805.

**20. Silesia.**—The Duchy of *Silesia* is the Austrian remnant of the duchy, the greater part of which was annexed by Frederick II of Prussia. It consists of two parts, one of which, the former Duchy of *Teschen*, lies between the Little Carpathians and the eastern end of the Sudetic mountains, and includes the sources of the Oder and the Vistula. The other, the former Duchy of *Troppau*, consists partly of a depression which passes into it from Moravia, partly of high grounds belonging to the Sudetic range. It lies wholly in the basin of the Oder. In the western district Germans form the predominant element of the population ; in the eastern, Poles. The province is less fertile than Moravia, but it is rich in coal and iron, and manufactures great quantities of woollen and other fabrics, spirits, and beet-root sugar. TROPPAU, in the pleasant valley of the Oppa, is the chief centre of the woollen industry, which is also carried on extensively at JÄGERNDORF, WAGSTADT, and BIELITZ. TESCHEN, in the valley of the Oelsa, lying at an almost equal distance from Moravia, Hungary, Galicia, and Prussian Silesia, has an important transit trade.

**21. Galicia.**—*Galicia* consists chiefly of the former kingdoms of *GALICIA* and *LODOMERIA* and of the former Grand Duchy of *Cracow*. Galicia and Lodomeria formed part of the kingdom of Red Russia, and derived their names from Halicz and Wladimir, sons of King Jaroslaus I, between whom, in the eleventh century, the western portion of their father's territory was divided. From the fourteenth century all the land included in the present province belonged to the kingdom of Poland, and by the partitions of Poland it came to the house of Hapsburg. In 1809 *Cracow* was united to the Duchy of Warsaw, but in 1815 it was made a republic, with a small territory. In 1845 this republic was annexed to the Austrian dominions, and included in the province of Galicia. The Galician population is almost

entirely Slavonic ; Polish in the west, Ruthenian in the east. The Jews hold an important place as traders.

Galicia takes in the northern and north-eastern slopes of a great part of the Carpathians, with many offshoots from them. In the north it lies within the northern plain. The western part of the province lies in the basin of the Vistula ; the eastern, in the basins of the Dniester and the Danube. Except in the mountainous districts, the soil is generally fertile. Oats and barley are the chief crops, but flax, beet-root, and tobacco are carefully cultivated. Good cattle are reared, and Galicia is famous for its bees. Immense quantities of salt are produced, and much petroleum is found among the Carpathians. Manufacturing industry has only been slightly developed, and the people depend chiefly on the more advanced provinces for artificial commodities.

The capital is LEMBERG (pop. 109,746), founded by Prince Leo of Halicz in 1268. Its Polish name is Lwow. It lies among hills in the narrow valley of the Peltew, a small affluent of the Bug, and a great trade passes through it between Russia and Turkey. It is the seat of a Roman Catholic, a Greek United, and an Armenian archbishopric, and has many fine synagogues. The university is an important centre of learning and education for the Poles. BRODY, near the Russian frontier, is a trading town, inhabited to a large extent by Jews. Other trading towns in the eastern part of Galicia are TARNOPOLE, on the Sered ; KOLOMEA, on the Pruth, with intimate commercial relations with Bukowina ; and PRZEMYSŁ and JAROSLAV, on the San.

Of all the towns of Galicia the most interesting is CRACOW (pop. 66,095). In 1320 it became the capital of Poland, and it retained this position until 1587. It lies in the beautiful valley of the Vistula, with low hills in the neighbourhood ; and in the older streets are many fine Gothic buildings. On a height within the town rises a vast castle, built in the fourteenth century by Casimir the Great. This was formerly the residence of the kings of Poland ; now it is used as barracks, with a military hospital. Near the castle is the cathedral in which for centuries the Polish kings were crowned. In this fine

church are the graves of many of the greatest men produced by Poland, including John Sobieski, Poniatowski, and Kosciuszko. Cracow has a university, is strongly fortified, and carries on a great trade. It lies near valuable salt-beds. A little to the west, on a height overlooking the Vistula, is a mound raised by the Poles in honour of Kosciuszko. It is made of earth brought from all the districts of Poland; with some from America, where he spent a part of his life, and some from Switzerland, where he died.

**22. Bukowina.**—*Bukowina* was formerly a part of Transylvania, but in the fifteenth century it was taken by the Turks, and added to Moldavia. The Russians conquered it in 1774, and, with the approval of Turkey, it was made over to Austria. It was included in Galicia until 1849, when it was made a province. Ruthenians and Roumanians are the principal elements of the population, but there are also a good many Germans and Jews, and some Poles and Magyars. The province is traversed by offshoots of the Carpathians, and is drained chiefly by the Pruth and other rivers in the basin of the Danube. It has splendid forests and considerable mineral resources, and is famous for its cattle and horses. The capital is CZERNOWITZ (pop. 45,600), on the Pruth. It has a German university, and carries on an important trade, especially with Roumania.

#### *The Transleithan Provinces.*

**23. Hungary.**—The Transleithan provinces consist of the kingdom of Hungary and some of the lands which were subject to it before it was ruled by the house of Hapsburg.

Although HUNGARY derives its name from the Hungarians, they do not form a majority of the population. In 1880 the population of Hungary, with Transsylvania, was 13,812,320. Of this number only 6,478,711 were Magyars. They dislike the life of cities, and dwell chiefly in the broad plains of the Theiss, where abundant crops can be produced, and cattle and horses reared, without much exhausting toil. In the Transleithan provinces there are

about two millions of Germans, the majority of whom are in Hungary, living in scattered groups in different parts of the country. Of the Slavonic peoples in Hungary, the Slovaks are found in great numbers in the northern and north-western Carpathians. They are generally agricultural labourers and miners, most of the land being in the possession of Magyars and Germans. The valleys of the Upper Theiss are held chiefly by Ruthenians, who have gradually migrated thither from Galicia. In the southern part of Hungary there are many Servians and Croatians. The population also includes about 80,000 gypsies.

Hungary is chiefly an agricultural country, and much of the soil is admirably adapted for agriculture in almost all its branches. The Pusstas provide pasture for cattle, sheep, and horses; and in some of them considerable tracts have been successfully brought under the plough. The plains in the immediate neighbourhood of the Danube, the Theiss, and other rivers are richly fertile, and produce so much wheat and maize that Hungary has long been regarded as one of the great granaries of Europe. Flax and potatoes are also extensively cultivated, and more tobacco is grown than in any other European country. The vine flourishes in a large number of districts, and Hungary is famous for the great variety of its wines. In the plains there are not many trees, but forests in the higher grounds provide vast supplies of timber, and many woods produce chestnuts, walnuts, and plums. Mulberries are grown for the silk trade, and in the south there are figs and almonds. Hungary has a great reputation for its cattle and sheep, and for its small, hardy breeds of horses.

There are great mineral resources, but as yet most of them have been only slightly utilised. Valuable coal-fields spread around Fünfkirchen and Steyerdorf, and lignite is found in the borderland between Hungary and Styria. In the Carpathians gold, silver, and iron ores are produced; and from the same region come rock-salt, marble, and various kinds of gems, the most valuable of which is the opal, obtained by mining.

Manufactures are increasing, but they are still com-

paratively unimportant. Near the iron mines there are iron and steel works; and in the northern district called Zips linen fabrics are produced. The coarser kinds of cloth are made in many places, and the weaving of silk has been to some extent introduced. Considerable quantities of leather and paper are manufactured, and there are many distilleries and breweries.

The capital is **Buda-Pesth** (pop. 422,557), on the Danube. Buda and Pesth were formerly separate cities, but now each forms a part of the capital. They are united by a fine suspension bridge, and by a railway bridge. BUDA lies on the left bank. In the centre of it rises a hill called the Schlossberg, crowned by a great castle, around which, on the slopes of the hill, and on a strip of level ground along the bank of the river, the town is built. Behind the Schlossberg is the still higher and strongly fortified Blocksberg, presenting a steep cliff towards the Danube, but with slopes, covered with houses, on the other sides. Buda, with its old castle and irregular streets, has the appearance of an ancient city, and its site is one of remarkable beauty. It has silk, velvet, and other manufactures, but is famous chiefly for its wine, the vine growing luxuriantly on the hills in the neighbourhood. The town became important in the thirteenth century, when a fortress was built on the Schlossberg. It was captured by the Turks in 1526, and held by them from 1541 to 1686; and the baths they erected are still much used.

PESTH lies on a plain on the right bank, and presents a striking contrast to Buda. Although an old town, it did not become prominent until the eighteenth century; but now it is by far the richest and most populous city in Hungary. A great quay, backed by a row of fine buildings, stretches along the Danube; and behind the inner town, as the older part is called, extend in a semicircle the newer districts, consisting of wide and handsome streets. It has many important industries, including the manufacture of silk, cotton, and leather, and the distilling of brandy; and it is the centre for the trade of the middle Danube. Its markets, four of which are held in the year, are attended by visitors from all parts of the monarchy. It has a

university, a technical high school, a great national museum, and academies of art and science.

In comparison with Buda-Pesth the other towns of Hungary are unimportant, as manufacturing industries have nowhere been so largely developed as to render the growth of great cities necessary. Few of them have fine architecture, and most of the towns on the plains inhabited by Magyars consist of low buildings, with straggling, ill-made roadways.

Among the towns on the Danube, above Buda-Pesth, is PRESBURG (pop. 48,006), built partly on spurs of the Little Carpathians. It is inhabited chiefly by Germans, and has a considerable trade. Near it is the hill on which the kings were formerly crowned. RAAB, at the point where the Raab meets an arm of the Danube, has an old cathedral, and is one of the centres of the grain trade. KOMORN, built at the junction of the Waag with the Danube, is also a trading town, and is strongly fortified. GRAN, the seat of an archbishopric, has many churches, the most important of which is the cathedral, built in imitation of St. Peter's. On the Danube, far below Buda-Pesth, are KALOCSA, the seat of an archbishopric ; and MOHACZ, famous as the scene of the battle which brought a great part of Hungary into subjection to the Turks.

West of the Danube is the district intersected by the Bakonyer Wald and other offshoots of the Alps. Among the towns in this district are OEDENBURG, near the Neusiedler See, in the neighbourhood of which much wine is produced; VESZPRIM, near the Platten See, with a fine cathedral and episcopal palace ; and FÜNFKIRCHEN, an old town, in the neighbourhood of a coal-field. Near it is a famous cave with stalactites.

On the Waag is POSTENY, famous for its hot springs and mud baths. Farther up the same river is TRENSIN, near which there are also warm baths. North of the Gran, in a valley surrounded by mountains, is KREMNITZ, the centre of a gold-mining district. In the same region, south of the Gran, is SCHEMNITZ, with great gold and silver mines ; and at NEUSOHL there are copper mines. Farther east in the northern highlands we come to KÄSMARK and LEUT-

SCHAN, small manufacturing towns, the centres of a district inhabited chiefly by Germans. Käsmark lies on the Poprad, a stream which cuts its way through the Carpathians to the Vistula; LEUTSCHAU is in the basin of the upper Theiss. Among other towns in this basin are KASCHAU, a Polish trading town, near which is the magnificent abbey of Jászó; MISKOLCZ, with great ironworks; and TOKAY, famous as the centre of the chief wine-producing district of Hungary.

In the district between the Theiss and the Danube, in the northern part of the plain, are ERLAU, the seat of an archbishopric, with a fine cathedral; and GYÖNGYÖS, a prosperous town, with an important trade in swine and cattle. SZOLNOK, at the point where the Zagyva flows into the Theiss, is a trading town with fisheries. KECSKEMET (pop. 44,887) and MARIA-THERESIOPOL (pop. 61,367) lie in the midst of Pusstas, and have great cattle-markets. The latter town manufactures linen and tobacco. SZEGEDIN (pop. 73,676) on the Theiss, has great markets, and is important as the chief centre for the trade of the upper and middle Theiss. ZOMBOR, near the Emperor Francis canal, manufactures silk, and has a considerable trade. On the Danube is NEUSATZ, connected with Peterwardein by a bridge of boats, and inhabited chiefly by Greeks; it is an emporium for traffic between Vienna and the East.

Of the towns in the plain to the east of the Theiss, the chief is DEBRECZIN (pop. 51,122), a purely Magyar city. It is famous for its cattle and pigs, and has also a great trade in grain and tobacco. GROSSWARDEIN (pop. 31,324), on the Körös, is a fortified town, with a considerable trade in agricultural products. Among other agricultural towns in this district are ARAD (pop. 35,556) and MAKÓ (pop. 30,063), both on the Maros. VASARHELY (pop. 50,966), near the Theiss, has a trade in tobacco and wine.

East of the lower Theiss is the district called *Banat*, the eastern part of which is covered by the last offshoots of the Carpathians. Here many Germans have settled. The chief town is TEMESVAR (pop. 33,694), strongly fortified, and carrying on a considerable trade. STEIERDORF is the

centre of a coal district, and near ORAVICZA there are mines and iron-works. In the picturesque valley of the Czerna are the famous hot springs of the Hercules Baths.

**24. Transylvania.**—*Transylvania*, called by the Germans *Siebenbürgen*, formed part of *Dacia* in Roman times. After the break-up of the western empire it was occupied in succession by various Teutonic and non-Aryan tribes. In 1004 it was united with the Kingdom of Hungary, and afterwards it received many German settlers, whose descendants still occupy the south-western districts. In 1526, when the Archduke Ferdinand was elected to the throne of Hungary, Transylvania chose a prince of its own, and it remained for a long time independent. In 1669 it came under the supremacy of the house of Hapsburg, by which, in the following century, it was made an archduchy. It was incorporated with Hungary in 1867. The country is very mountainous, and famous for its forests, its gold mines, and its salt-works. It lies wholly in the basin of the Danube, and is watered chiefly by the Maros, the Aluta, and the Szamos. The majority of the people are Roumanians, but there are also important settlements of Magyars and Germans, and a good many Jews. In all parts of the country there are small groups of gypsies.

The capital is HERMANNSTADT, a German town founded in the twelfth century. It lies on the Cibin, an affluent of the Aluta, and in the middle ages its Latin name was *Cibinium*, of which Siebenbürgen is a corruption. It is picturesquely situated, and, although inhabited by Roumanians as well as by Germans, has the general appearance of a German town. It has some industries, and a considerable trade with Roumania and Turkey. KRONSTADT, founded by Germans in the thirteenth century, is the chief manufacturing and trading town in Transylvania. KLAUSENBURG, or KOLOSVAR (pop. 29,923), although originally German, is now chiefly a Magyar town, with a university. ZALANTHA, called by the Germans GOLDENMARKT, is the centre of the gold-mining district, and at THORDA and MAROS-ÜJVAR there are great salt-works. MAROS-VASARHELY has an important trade in tobacco, and BRISTRITZ is the centre for the trade with

Bukowina, with which it communicates by a road crossing the Carpathians.

**25. Croatia and Slavonia.**—*Croatia* and *Slavonia* occupy the district between the Drave and the Save, and the former country takes in also a region to the south-west, including the rocky coast of the Gulf of Quarnero. The Julian Alps traverse this south-western region from north-west to south-east, and the centre of the district between the Save and the Drave is occupied by offshoots from the Alps. Croatia is inhabited by the descendants of a Slavonic people who took possession of the land in the seventh century. They formed an important kingdom, which took in a part of *Bosnia*; but, on the extinction of the native dynasty at the end of the eleventh century, they became subject to the crown of Hungary. Slavonia was also occupied by Croatians in the seventh century. Afterwards the Croatians of this district became mixed with Slavonic immigrants from Dalmatia, and the new people received the name they still bear. They were brought into final subjection to Hungary in 1165. The chief industry is agriculture, but there are coal-mines between the Save and the Drave.

The capital of Croatia is *AGRAM* (pop. 28,360), the meeting-place of the Diet common to the entire province. It lies near the Save, in a fertile valley bounded by richly wooded hills in the north and west. It has a cathedral and a university, and carries on a trade in timber, corn, and tobacco. Agram is the centre of a district in which earthquakes are frequent. A large part of the town was destroyed by earthquakes in 1880 and 1881. On the coast, looking out upon the islands of the Quarnero Gulf, and upon the eastern seaboard of Istria, is *FIUME* (pop. 20,981), with two harbours, and a considerable shipping trade. It lies on a small stream, and has an old round church dedicated to St. Vitus, called in Latin “*Fanum St. Viti ad Flumen.*” The name “Fiume” seems to be a corruption of “*Flumen.*” Between Fiume and Agram, which are connected by a railway, is *KARLSTADT*, on the Kulpa, a centre of trade.

The capital of Slavonia is *ESZEK*, on the Drave, with

silk manufactures and a trade in corn and cattle. Near MITROWITZ, on the Save, are many Roman remains. SEMLIN, near the point where the Save joins the Danube, is a considerable trading station between Austria on the one hand and Servia and Turkey on the other. PETERWARDEIN, on the Danube, opposite Neusatz, is overlooked by a strongly fortified rocky height. Near it is CARLOWITZ, the centre of an important wine-producing district.

## CHAPTER X

### THE LOW COUNTRIES

1. **THE Low Countries** include the kingdoms of Belgium and the Netherlands, and take in the part of the northern plain which is watered by the Schelde, the lower Meuse, and the arms of the lower Rhine.

2. **History.**—The earliest known inhabitants of the southern part of the Low Countries were the Belgæ, a Keltic people who, as we have seen, occupied also much of what is now north-eastern France. North of them were some Dutch tribes, but a mixed people seem to have held a border district in the delta of the Rhine. The Low Countries were joined to the Frankish kingdom, and afterwards the greater part of the region was included in the kingdom of Germany, and therefore in the Holy Roman Empire. During the middle ages the Low Countries were divided into a number of feudal territories, two of which, the counties of Flanders and Artois, were held in fief of the French crown. The others were nominally subject to the Emperor; and among them were the county of Holland, the bishopric of Utrecht, the Duchy of Brabant, the counties of Hennegau or Hainault and Namur, the bishopric of Lüttich or Liège, and the Duchies of Geldern, Limburg, and Lützelburg or Luxemburg.

In the course of the fifteenth century the Low Countries came into the possession of the Dukes of **Burgundy**; and Duke Charles the Bold, holding these lands in addition to his other hereditary territories, thought of forming a great kingdom which should reach between France and the

Empire, from the North Sea to the Mediterranean. In 1477 Mary, the daughter of Charles the Bold, became the wife of Maximilian, who was afterwards Emperor. Their son Philip married the Infanta Joanna, and thus the Low Countries passed to the Spanish branch of the house of Hapsburg.

The doctrines of the Reformation were accepted by a large proportion of the inhabitants of the Low Countries. Philip II of Spain, being resolved to maintain the spiritual supremacy of Rome, ruled the land with such barbarous tyranny that the people rebelled; and after a long struggle those in the north succeeded in establishing their independence. They formed the state called the **United Provinces**. These provinces were *Holland*, *Zealand*, *Utrecht*, *Gelderland*, *Overyssel*, *Friesland*, and *Groningen*. They took in what had been the county of Holland and the bishopric of Utrecht, and a part of the Duchy of Geldern. The confederation also held as common possessions another part of Geldern, and parts of Brabant and Flanders. The United Provinces chose the republican form of government. They did not at once break their nominal connection with the Holy Roman Empire, but from 1578 they were really independent, and their independence was formally recognised in 1648. The confederation was for some time the greatest maritime power in Europe, and secured many distant territories, including Ceylon and parts of India, the Islands of Java, Sumatra, and the Moluccas, southern Africa and parts of the Guinea coast, and a part of Guiana in South America. The country came to be generally known by the name of the chief province, **HOLLAND**; and in England the word '**Dutch**', which is properly the name of all the German branches of the Teutonic race, was gradually restricted to the people of the United Provinces.

The southern provinces of the Low Countries were unable to secure independence, and remained subject to the Spanish crown until 1713, when, by the Peace of Utrecht, they were transferred to Austria. By that time a good deal of their territory, including most of Artois, and parts of Flanders and Hainault, had been annexed to

France, which thus obtained what are now some of her most flourishing cities. During the wars due to the French Revolution, France took the whole of the Austrian Netherlands ; and the United Provinces were first made a kingdom, and then annexed to the French Empire.

In 1814, when Europe, through the Congress of Vienna, was trying to bring order out of the confusion caused by Napoleon, the Low Countries were united in one kingdom, called the kingdom of the NETHERLANDS. This arrangement proved to be wholly unsatisfactory, and in 1830 a revolt at Brussels led to the severance of the southern provinces, and their union in the kingdom of BELGIUM. The two kingdoms correspond generally to what were formerly the Austrian Netherlands and the United Provinces.

### *Belgium.*

**3. Physical Features**—Belgium lies only in part within what are strictly called the Low Countries. The south-eastern part consists of uplands called the **Ardennes**, which are connected with the hilly district of the Rhenish province of Prussia. The Ardennes rise here and there to a height of about 1500 or 2000 feet, and were in former times covered with forests, which in some parts still survive. In the west and north they descend gradually to the great northern plain, which stretches eastward from the Belgian coast. The coast lies low, but is partly protected from the encroachments of the sea by sand dunes.

The country is watered chiefly by the Meuse and the Schelde, both of which come to it from France. The **Meuse** enters Belgium below Mézières, and flows northward through a deep and beautiful cleft in the Ardennes. At Namur it is joined on the left bank by its chief tributary, the *Sambre*, and turns to the right, flowing in a north-easterly direction towards Holland, receiving on the right bank the *Ourthe*. The **Schelde** enters Belgium below Condé, and after many windings reaches its mouths, which belong to Holland. It receives on the left bank the *Lys*, and on the right the *Rupel*, into which flows the *Senne*.

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**4. Government.**—The form of government is a limited monarchy, the power of making laws belonging to the king and Parliament. Parliament consists of two chambers, a House of Representatives and a Senate. Both are chosen by the people, but only men who are forty years of age and upwards, and possess a certain amount of wealth, are eligible as senators. Ministers responsible to Parliament are appointed by the king.

Belgium has only a small army, which is formed partly by enlistment, partly by conscription, to which all healthy men above nineteen years of age are liable. The period of service is nominally eight years, but in reality, as a rule, only three. In 1889 the army, including officers, consisted of 47,570 men. There is also a civil guard, almost equally numerous.

**5. The People.**—The area of Belgium is 11,373 square miles, and in 1880 the population was 5,520,009—or 520 for every square mile. With the exception of Saxony, no other European country is so densely populated; and the maintenance of so large a number is rendered possible only by the fertility of the soil of Belgium, its great mineral wealth, and its manufactures. The people belong to two distinct races, the **Walloons** and the **Flemings**. The Walloons are descendants of the ancient Belgæ, and dwell chiefly in the high grounds of the south. Their language has sprung directly from Latin, and is closely akin to French. The Flemings are Teutons, and their speech is one of the Low Dutch group of languages. They live chiefly in the plains. The official language of Belgium is French, and a large number of the educated classes speak both French and Flemish.

The people of both races belong almost wholly to the Roman Church, which is ruled by the Archbishop of Mechlen or Malines, and five bishops. The law requires that there shall be in every commune at least one elementary school, and in most districts the schools are well attended. There are also many public and private middle schools, public Gymnasia, and four universities, two of which, those of Ghent and Liège, are State institutions. The universities of Brussels and Louvain are free. In

connection with the universities there are schools for special instruction in engineering, the industrial arts, and kindred subjects.

The agricultural land belongs chiefly to peasants, who cultivate it with extraordinary care. In the north-east there is a barren district called the Campine, consisting of sand and heath; but even there considerable tracts have been reclaimed by skill and diligence. Elsewhere many morasses have been drained, and turned into fruitful soil. The chief cereals are wheat, rye, and oats. Much flax and beet-root are also produced, and in the Ardennes there are many vineyards. A good deal of land is devoted to gardening, and the valleys of the Meuse and the Sambre are famous for their fruit. Fine breeds of horses are reared, and among the hills there is excellent pasturage for sheep.

In the south-eastern hilly district there is a great coal-field, which passes into the Prussian Rhine province; and it is worked to the utmost possible extent. Iron, zinc, and lead are also produced. The coal mines provide ample fuel for manufactures; and, next to England, Belgium is the chief manufacturing country in Europe. It manufactures an enormous quantity of woollen, cotton, and linen fabrics, and produces also, among other things, machinery, leather, glass, and porcelain. Brussels, Ghent, and Liège are among its most important industrial centres. From all parts of the country there is easy access to the sea by rivers, canals, and railways; and Belgium has a great trade with many nations, especially with France, the Netherlands, England, Germany, and the United States.

**6. Provinces—Brabant.**—Belgium is divided into nine provinces, several of which are remarkable for the number and prosperity of their towns. Some of these cities had a great reputation in the middle ages for their industrial products, and carried on an extensive trade with Italy and other countries. They became important centres of art, and their leading citizens were distinguished by a spirit of enterprise and a manly love of freedom. Their wealth, however, was attended by many perils, for it made the Low Countries an object of envy to unscrupulous potentates.

The most densely populated province is *Brabant*. In it is Brussels (pop. 458,939), the capital of Belgium. Brussels lies on the Senne, and is built partly on a plain, partly on a hill. The district on the plain is called the lower town, that on the hill the upper. The lower town is the older part of Brussels, and contains many fine Gothic buildings, the chief being the cathedral of St. Gudule, built mainly in the thirteenth century, and the beautiful town hall, built in the fifteenth. In the upper town are the residences of the well-off classes. Brussels, in addition to its free university, has many educational institutions, an academy of science and art, a great library, and a picture gallery with some of the best works of the Flemish school. Among its industrial products are woollen and cotton fabrics, lace, jewellery, glass, and porcelain. LOUVAIN (pop. 38,689), on the Dyle, is less important as an industrial town than it was in former times, but it has still great breweries. Its town hall is a magnificent building. The university is a Roman Catholic institution, intended for the education of the clergy. Near WATERLOO and RAMILLIES are famous battlefields.

**7. Limburg and Antwerp.**—*Limburg* has much barren soil, and its only town of importance is HASSELT, where several lines of railway meet. In the province of *Antwerp* is the city of ANTWERP (pop. 210,534), on the Schelde. It is the chief port in Belgium, and a vast trade passes through it. Its cathedral, with a lofty spire, is one of the finest churches in Christendom. Antwerp, through Quentin Massys, Rubens, Van Dyck, and other painters, is closely associated with the history of Flemish art. MECHLEN or MALINES (pop. 48,950), on the Dyle, is the ecclesiastical metropolis of Belgium, and has a great cathedral. It has long been famous for its lace.

**8. East Flanders.**—In *East Flanders* is GHENT (pop. 147,912), built at the point where the Lys joins the Schelde. During the middle ages it had famous woollen manufactures, and was one of the most populous cities in Europe. It is now the centre of the cotton and linen industries. It has a fine town hall, and in the cathedral is the great picture by the brothers Van Eyck, "The

Adoration of the Lamb." In connection with the university there are important botanical and geological gardens. Ghent was the birthplace of John of Gaunt and Charles V. ST. NICHOLAS (pop. 27,572) and ALOST (pop. 23,096) are industrial towns. Near OUDENARDE is a battlefield.

**9. West Flanders.**—The chief town in *West Flanders* is BRUGES (pop. 46,821). In the thirteenth century Bruges became a mart of the Hanseatic League, and the continental centre for the English wool trade; and during the



FIG. 25.—ANTWERP.

fourteenth and a part of the fifteenth centuries its trade was not surpassed by that of any other northern city. It still has woollen, linen, and other industries, but they are unimportant in comparison with those of former times. It derives its name from the fact that its canals were crossed by many bridges. Bruges is a picturesque town, with fine buildings, in some of which are works of art of priceless value. The ancient church of Notre Dame has a statue of the Virgin and Child by Michael Angelo, and in the hospital of St. John are splendid pictures by Memling. The Palais de Justice has an elaborate and most beautiful

chimney-piece, made in the sixteenth century. OSTENDE (pop. 23,500) is a famous watering place, and lies on one of the chief routes between England and the continent. YPRES, on the Yperlée, is another town that has lost its ancient splendour. In the fourteenth century its looms produced vast quantities of textile fabrics, especially of the linen called "diaper," which seems to be a corruption of d'Ypres. A memorial of the mediæval trade of Ypres survives in its beautiful Cloth Hall. It has also a great cathedral. The chief industrial products now are lace and woollen goods. COURTRAI (pop. 29,399), on the Lys, produces table-linen and lace, and prepares flax for manufacture. Before its walls, in 1302, was fought the Battle of the Spurs.

10. **Hainault.**—*Hainault*, or *Hennegau*, derives its name from the river Haine or Henne. Its chief town is TOURNAI (pop. 34,805), on the Schelde. Tournai occupies the site of the Roman *Turnacum*, and in the fifth century, before the conquest of Gaul by the Franks, was the seat of the Merovingian kings. In 1655 the grave of Childeric, King of the Franks, who died in 481, was found at Tournai; and in it were many most interesting relics, some of which are now in the National Library of Paris. The town used to be strongly fortified, and has often been besieged. Among its many public buildings is a beautiful Romanesque cathedral. Its chief industrial products are carpets (called Brussels carpets), stockings, and porcelain. MONS (pop. 25,754), on the Trouille, is said to have originated in a fortress built there by Julius Cæsar. It is associated with many important events in the military history of the Low Countries. Its commercial importance is due to the fact that it lies in the midst of the chief coal-mining district of Belgium. CHARLEROI (pop. 20,800) is the centre of the Belgian iron industry. There are battlefields near FONTENOY, FLEURUS, and JEMAPPES.

11. **Namur.**—The chief town in the province of *Namur* is NAMUR (pop. 28,706), at the point where the Sambre joins the Meuse. Its situation makes it a place of strategic importance, and for many centuries it has been strongly fortified. Of the numerous sieges of Namur the most

interesting to Englishmen is that by William III in 1695. The town is famous for its cutlery.

**12. Luxemburg.**—The province of *Luxemburg* has no important city. *ARLON*, the capital, is an old agricultural town, and in the neighbourhood Roman antiquities have been found. Here was the ancient *Orolaunum Vicus*.

**13. Liège.**—*LIEGE* (pop. 140,261), in the province of *Liège*, is the chief city in the Walloon district. It is picturesquely situated on both sides of the Meuse, at the point where that river is joined by the Ourthe. In the neighbourhood are coal-mines, some of which extend under the town. *Liège* is famous for its manufactures of weapons and machinery, and for its zinc foundries. It has many fine churches, and a *Palais de Justice* built in the sixteenth century. Its university is especially eminent as a centre for the study and teaching of physical science. Near *Liège* are many industrial towns, the most important of which is *SERAING* (pop. 31,398), with great ironworks and manufactories, founded in 1817 by John Cockerill, an Englishman. *VERVIERS* (pop. 47,744) is a modern town, with important manufactures of cloth. At *SPA*, at the foot of wooded hills, are famous mineral springs, which made it the foremost watering-place in Europe in the eighteenth century.

### *The Kingdom of the Netherlands.*

**14. Physical Features.**—The kingdom of the NETHERLANDS, or HOLLAND, lies wholly in the great plain, of which it occupies the north-western corner. Much of the land is considerably below sea-level. The coast of Flanders and that of north-eastern France are protected from the sea by sand-dunes; but most of those which were formerly on the coast of what is now Holland have been worn away. The sea, therefore, continually tends to encroach upon the land. It has parted from the shore the line of islands which, beginning with *Texel*, lie off the northern seaboard; and in the south-west it has cut out great channels in the deltas of the Rhine, the Maas (as the Meuse is called in Holland), and the

Schelde. In the thirteenth century the sea broke over a great extent of land in the north, and formed the **Zuider Zee** (the Southern Sea), uniting with itself a lake called Flevo. North-east of the Zuider Zee it has formed the **Lauwer Zee**, east of which is the estuary of the Ems.

But for the skill and energy of the inhabitants, the greater part of the country would inevitably be submerged. The Dutch are a people of high intelligence and resolute character, and so they have been able, by means of strong **dykes**, to defend themselves from the danger to which they are exposed. These dykes are of vast extent, and constructed with the greatest care. Standing on the inner side at high tide, one may hear the waves dashing against their outer slope.

Of the rivers by which the land is watered the most important is the **Rhine**. It does not flow to the sea as one continuous stream, but is again and again divided. Almost immediately after entering the Netherlands, it parts into two great arms, the most southerly of which, called the **Waal**, advances in a general westerly direction. South of the Waal is the **Maas**, which, after quitting the Belgian frontier, flows towards the north-east, then sweeps round to the north-west, describing a semicircle. At Woudrichen it joins the Waal; and the united stream, called the Maas, proceeds to the sea through several channels, of which the Haring Vliet is the chief. The northern arm, which, although less important than the Waal, retains the name of the Rhine, is divided above Arnhem, the Yssel parting off, and flowing northward to the Zuider Zee. At Wyk the Rhine again divides, one arm taking the name of the Lek, and flowing into the lower Maas, while the stream called the Rhine flows towards Utrecht. Here it is divided into the Old Rhine and the Vecht; the latter flowing northward to the Zuider Zee. Formerly the Old Rhine lost itself among sand dunes, but now it escapes through a canal to the sea at Katwyk.

The **Schelde**, in the lowest part of its course, is another great Dutch river. Below Antwerp it is divided into two arms—one to the left, called the western Schelde, which

flows into the sea at Vlissingen or Flushing ; and one to the right, subdivided into the eastern Schelde and the Eendgrad. The mouths of the Schelde communicate with those of the Rhine and the Maas, and a group of islands lies amid the two connected sets of channels. The chief of these islands are Walcheren, Beveland, Tholen, Schouwen, Over Flakkee, Voorne, and Beyerland.

The Rhine and the Maas bring with them, from the districts through which they pass, so much fine mud that the level of their beds is being continually raised. Thus dykes are as necessary to prevent river-inundations as to prevent the encroachments of the sea. The danger is so great below the junction of the Maas with the Waal, that it is proposed that the waters of the lower Maas shall be diverted from their natural course by an artificial channel, so that they may not unite with the Waal.

The climate of the Netherlands, like the climate of the lower parts of Belgium, has a general resemblance to that of the eastern districts of England, but it is less variable. Fogs from the North Sea are very frequent. In winter the rivers and canals are usually frozen over for a good many weeks, so that all classes have become remarkably skilful in skating.

**15. Government.**—In the Netherlands, as in Belgium, the form of government is a limited monarchy. The Parliament — called the States-General — consists of two chambers : the first chamber being composed of members elected by the provincial states or assemblies ; the second, of members elected directly by the people. The first chamber cannot propose measures ; its function is either to accept or to reject bills passed by the more popular branch of the legislature. Ministers responsible to the States-General are appointed by the crown.

The army consists partly of men drawn by conscription, partly of volunteers. All men who have reached the age of nineteen are liable to conscription. Those who are chosen have nominally to serve for five years, but in reality they serve for one year, and during the remaining four years devote six weeks annually to practice. The regular army numbers about 55,000 men, and there is also a

militia for internal defence. In 1887 the navy was manned by 5789 sailors, and there were 2175 marines.

**16. The People.**—The Netherlands have an area of 12,648 square miles, and in 1887 there was a population of 4,450,868—or 352 to every square mile. The population, judged by the test of language, is wholly Teutonic, and is almost wholly of the Low Dutch stock. Nearly three-fourths of the people speak the language which the English call Dutch. They dwell chiefly in North and South Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, and Geldern. Most of the remainder are Frisians and Flemings. The former occupy Friesland, Groningen, Drenthe, and Overyssel; the latter, North Brabant and Limburg. The people have always been remarkable for their energy and resolution, and, by their heroic struggle with Spain in the sixteenth century, they made their country one of the classic lands of liberty. Compared with the High Dutch or Germans, they are somewhat reserved in manner, but they delight in congenial society, and are generally of a humane and kindly temper. The houses of the well-off classes are models of convenient and pleasant domestic architecture, and the Dutch housewife is known all over the world for her love of order, tidiness, and cleanliness. Holland has for centuries been famous as a home of science and learning, and in the seventeenth century it produced one of the most important of the great schools of art.

The majority of the people are Protestants, and belong to the Reformed Church, with a Presbyterian form of government. The Roman Church, however, is also strong, and is ruled by the Archbishop of Utrecht and four bishops. Both communions, as well as the Jewish synagogues, are to some extent supported by the state. Primary schools are maintained in part by the central Government, in part by the communes; and an increasing number of the people take advantage of the opportunities thus provided for their children. There are also public middle schools and Gymnasia, and various technical schools; and there are universities at Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, and Amsterdam.

Agriculture is the most important industry. In the

south-east there is a district of peat-bogs called the Peel, and in the north-east the Bourtanger Moor extends into the Netherlands from Hanover. In these regions little cultivation is possible, and the parts which are tilled have been made productive at great cost and with much labour. Along the banks of the rivers there are rich deposits of alluvial soil, and wide tracts have been reclaimed from lakes and marshes. The parts thus won for agriculture are divided into sections called **Polders**, each surrounded by a dyke, to prevent the entrance of water from without, and associated with a canal to carry away water from within. The water from within is pumped up to the canal by water-wheels, some of which are driven by steam-engines, others by windmills. Polders have taken the place of the lake of Haarlem, and of most of the arm of the Zuider Zee called the Y; and it is proposed that the Zuider Zee itself shall be drained, and its bed transformed into fertile soil.

The chief crops are rye, barley, wheat, and potatoes; but the land is used more for grazing than for tillage, and the Netherlands are famous for their breeds of cattle, and for their butter and cheese. Gardening is also a favourite pursuit, and the Dutch send to all parts of the western world the finest bulbs of tulips and hyacinths. The country has no coal-beds, so that its manufacturing industries are not on a level with those of Belgium. They are, however, very important. Among the most valuable products are woollen, linen, and other textile fabrics; and great quantities of gin are distilled. There are also many ship-building yards, for which timber is sent down the Rhine from the Black Forest. For many of the manufacturing processes of the Netherlands windmills are used; and they are among the most distinctive of the objects that enliven Dutch landscape.

For centuries the Dutch have displayed a remarkable aptitude for trade, and their commercial classes have attained a high degree of material prosperity. The great rivers, and the irregular coast-line with its harbours, provide incalculable advantages for commerce, and these advantages have been vastly increased by means of canals,

by which rivers, seaports, and inland towns are brought into connection with one another. In no part of the world, of the same extent, are there so many canals as in the Netherlands, and they are as freely used in the cities as in the open country. Railways have made them, in some districts, less important than they were in former times ; but they are still essential, not only in connection with the system of drainage, but as a means of communication. With the trees planted along their banks, and with their boats and barges, the canals present many picturesque aspects which have often been reproduced in Dutch art.

The foreign trade of the Netherlands is carried on chiefly with Germany and Great Britain. The goods exchanged for the commodities of these and other countries are only in part produced at home ; many of them come from the Dutch colonies. In 1814 the Dutch lost South Africa, but they still have vast colonial possessions, with an area of 766,137 square miles, and a population of about 29,000,000. These possessions consist of islands in the East and West Indies, with Dutch Guiana or Surinam.

**17. South Holland.**—The Netherlands are divided into eleven provinces. Of these the most populous are *North* and *South Holland*, which have not only a remarkably fertile soil, but occupy an exceptionally favourable position for commerce. In *South Holland* is the capital, *The Hague* or '*s Gravenhage* (pop. 149,447), "the Count's Hedge," so called because it originated in a hunting lodge of the Counts of Holland. It is protected from the sea by sand-dunes, and owes its importance to the fact that it is the residence of the court, and the seat of the central Government. It has many broad streets and spacious squares. Near the middle of the city is a sheet of water called the *Vyver*, or fish pond, on one side of which is the *Binnenhof*, formerly the palace of the Counts of Holland and the stadholders. In two wings of this building are the chambers of the States-General. Near the *Binnenhof* the brothers John and Cornelius de Witt were murdered in 1672. The Hague has a handsome old town-hall, and a fine picture-gallery. *DELFT* (pop. 27,591), on the *Schie*, is a pleasant

town with trees along the margins of its canals. It has many quaint houses, and there are two fine old churches, in one of which—the Nieuwe Kerk—is a splendid monument to William of Orange, who was assassinated in the Prinsenhof in 1584. In the Oude Kerk there is a monument to Van Tromp, the admiral who, by a broom at his masthead, gave notice that he had swept his enemies from the English Channel. Grotius, the great scholar and statesman, was a native of Delft. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the town was famous for its pottery and porcelain; and its earthenware industry has lately been revived. Delft has a great polytechnic school. SCHIEDAM, on the Schie, is noted for its "Geneva," which receives its name from the juniper-berry with which it is flavoured. ROTTERDAM (pop. 193,658), built at the confluence of the Rotte with the Maas, stands next to Amsterdam among the trading towns of the Netherlands. It is intersected by deep canals, into which East Indiamen bring cargoes of colonial wares, such as sugar, coffee, tobacco, rice, and spices; and there are great tobacco factories, sugar-refineries, distilleries, and ship-building yards. Rotterdam was the birthplace of Erasmus, a statue of whom, erected in the seventeenth century, adorns the chief market-place. It has a good picture gallery, and an interesting museum of industrial art. DORDRECHT or DORT (pop. 31,067) was the chief commercial city of Holland during the middle ages; and some of its many picturesque houses are survivals from the time of its ancient greatness. It is built on an island; and its harbour, formed by an arm of the Maas, accommodates large sea-going vessels. In its windmills is sawn much of the timber floated down from the Upper Rhine. GOUDA, at the confluence of the Gouwe and the western Yssel, produces bricks, earthenware pipes, and cheese. Around the town are fine trees, and in the Groote Kerk there are magnificent stained glass windows, specimens of a branch of art in which Holland excelled in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. LEYDEN (pop. 46,079), on the Old Rhine, is one of the most ancient towns in the Netherlands. It secured for itself imperishable fame by the splendour

of its resistance to the Spaniards, by whom it was besieged in 1573-74. Its university was founded by William of Orange, in memory of its bravery on this occasion ; and this institution was soon made illustrious



FIG. 26.—AMSTERDAM.

by Grotius, Scaliger, Des cartes, and other scholars and thinkers. Leyden has also a famous natural history museum and ethnographical museum, both of which are richly supplied with collections from the Dutch colonies. The town was the birthplace of Rembrandt van Ryn, Jan Steen, Gerard Dou, and other great painters.

**18. North Holland.**—The chief town in *North Holland* is AMSTERDAM (pop. 390,016), the commercial capital of the Netherlands. It lies at the point where the Amstel flows into the Y, and sprang up in the thirteenth century around a castle built by a lord of Amstel, who constructed the dam from which the town received a part of its name. At the end of the sixteenth century, when Antwerp was ruined by the war with Spain, Amsterdam became a trading town of

vast importance, and for some time it was the chief centre of the world's commerce. It is the great mart for the produce of the Dutch colonies, and has also many industries, including the refining of sugar, the manufacture of tobacco, and the polishing of diamonds. On the northern side of the town are spacious docks, which are connected with the North Sea by a canal flowing in the centre of what was formerly the bed of the Y. This was begun in 1865, and finished in 1876; an earlier canal, connecting Amsterdam with the North Sea at Helder, having been found insufficient for the needs of the city. Amsterdam is built on piles, and is divided into about ninety islands by canals, which are crossed by about three hundred bridges. It has a municipal university, a royal palace, formed out of a great town hall, and several beautiful old churches; and the Ryks museum contains, besides other collections, one of the finest picture galleries in Europe. Near Amsterdam is ZAANDAM, where Peter the Great worked as a ship-carpenter. Along the bank of the Zaan, on which this town is built, there are about four hundred windmills, used for the sawing of wood, the grinding of corn, the making of oil and paper, and for many other purposes. ENKHUIZEN, now a small place, was formerly a great fishing town, and has a fine town-hall, and other buildings erected in more prosperous times. It was the birthplace of Paul Potter. At HELDER, opposite the island of Texel, there are strong fortifications; and as it is especially exposed to the encroachments of the sea, it is protected by an enormous dyke made of Norwegian granite. ALKMAAR ("All Sea") derives its name from the fact that it was formerly surrounded by a lake or morass. It sustained a famous siege in 1573. It has a weekly market, and is an important centre of the trade in cheese. HAARLEM (pop. 49,713), on the Spaarne, is a bright and pleasant old town, celebrated for its nursery-gardens, in which tulips, hyacinths, crocuses, and other flowers are cultivated in vast numbers, and with unsurpassed skill. Haarlem has a fine picture-gallery, and a town-hall formed from a palace of the Counts of Holland. It offered an ineffectual but glorious resistance to the Spaniards in 1572-73.

**19. Utrecht.**—The capital of the province of *Utrecht* is **UTRECHT** (pop. 81,398), built at the point where the Rhine divides into the old Rhine and the Vecht. Here is a ford which was used by the Romans, and the name of the city is derived from “*Oude Trecht*,” the Old Ford. A church was founded in Utrecht by Dagobert, one of the Frankish kings, and during the middle ages the bishops were among the most powerful prelates in northern Europe. The cathedral, built in the thirteenth



FIG. 27.—NEAR HAARLEM.

century, is a magnificent church, with a great tower; but in the seventeenth century the nave fell in, and it has never been re-erected. Beneath the choir were buried the hearts of the Emperors Conrad II and Henry V, who died in Utrecht, the former in 1039, the latter in 1125. Utrecht was the birthplace of Pope Adrian VI, in whose house there is now a telegraph office. The city has a university and some collections of art; and it carries on an important trade in cattle, grain, and various manufactures. A famous treaty was concluded at Utrecht in 1713.

**20. Zealand.**—*Zealand* takes in the islands formed by

the mouths of the Schelde, and a district south of the western Schelde. It consists chiefly of marshy land. The capital is MIDDLEBURG, a trading town, with a fine town-hall of the sixteenth century. Middelburg was the birthplace of Janssen and Lipperhey, the inventors of the telescope. VLSSINGEN or FLUSHING, a seaport on the island of Walcheren, lies on one of the routes between England and the continent. It was the birthplace of Admiral de Ruyter.

21. **North Brabant.**—The capital of *North Brabant* is 's HERTOGENBOSCH, or Bois-le-Duc (pop. 26,359); so called from Godfrey, Herzog or Duke of Brabant, who gave it the privileges of a town in 1184. It is built at the confluence of the Dommel with the Aa, and has a considerable trade. Its cathedral is one of great beauty. Among the other towns of this province are BREDA, on the Merk and the Aa, with fortifications; and TILBURG (pop. 32,451), with woollen manufactures.

22. **Limburg.**—The capital of *Limburg* is MAASTRICHT (pop. 31,621), on the left bank of the Maas. The ford from which the town derives its name was used, like that of Utrecht, by the Romans. A bishopric was transferred from Tongres to Maastricht by St. Servatius so early as 382. Formerly the city was strongly fortified, and it has often been besieged. It made itself illustrious in the war of independence. Near Maastricht is PETERSBERG, with an intricate labyrinth of sandstone quarries. Farther down the Maas, on the right bank, is VENLO, which was also in former times strongly fortified, and often besieged.

23. **Gelderland.**—Among the cities of *Gelderland* are ARNHEM, the capital (pop. 48,297), on the Rhine, at the foot of the picturesque Veluwe hills, formerly the seat of the Dukes of Geldern; and NYMEGEN, or NIMEGUEN (pop. 31,113), on the Waal, a favourite residence of the Emperor Charles the Great. At Nimeguen there is an interesting old church like that which Charles built at Aachen. ZUTPHEN, at the confluence of the Berkel with the Yssel, is an ancient town with a trade in the timber which is floated down the Rhine.

24. **Overyssel.**—In *Overyssel* are ZWOLLE, the capital,

on the Zwarde Water, a stream flowing to the Zuider Zee, near the monastery on the Agnetenberg, where Thomas à Kempis lived for more than sixty years; and DEVENTER, on the Yssel, with iron foundries and carpet-manufactories.

**25. Drenthe.**—*Drenthe* consists to a large extent of boggy land, only some of which has been reclaimed. Near ASSEN, the capital, are great prehistoric monuments called "giants' graves."

**26. Groningen.**—The capital of the province of *Groningen* is *GRONINGEN* (pop. 53,050), with a university. It lies on the Hunse, a navigable river, and has an important trade in grain and rape-seed.

**27. Friesland.**—The capital of *Friesland* is *LEEUWARDEN* (pop. 29,413), an old town with a considerable trade in cattle and agricultural products, and in gold and silver ware. It has a magnificent town-hall. Near *DOKKUM*, a village, St. Bonifacius, the Apostle of the Germans, was killed by the Frisians in 755.

### *Luxemburg.*

**28.** The Grand Duchy of *LUXEMBURG*, lying to the south-east of Belgium, takes in rather less than half of the territory known as Luxemburg. This territory was ceded by Austria to France in 1797, but in 1815 it was made a Grand Duchy of the German Confederation, and placed under the King of the Netherlands, who ruled it as Grand Duke. In 1839 the western part of it was annexed to Belgium. The rest continued to be subject to the Grand Duke; and it remained in connection with Germany until 1866, when the German Confederation was dissolved. In 1867 the Great Powers arranged that the Grand Duchy should be neutral territory.

Luxemburg is a hilly country, about two-thirds of it belonging to the table-land of Lorraine, about a third (in the north) to the Ardennes. Among the rivers by which it is watered are the Moselle, the Sauer, the Alzette, the Our, and the Attert. It has an area of 998 square miles, and a population of 213,283, most of whom are

Roman Catholics. In some districts near the Belgian frontier the people are Walloons; but the language spoken by the majority is a Low Dutch dialect. The King of the Netherlands, as Grand Duke, is represented by a deputy-governor, and appoints a Council of State. Legislative power, however, is shared with a chamber of deputies, who are freely elected. Agriculture is the principal occupation of the people, but the country is rich in minerals, especially in iron ore, and there are a good many mines and foundries. In the valleys of the Moselle and the Sauer valuable quarries are worked.

The capital is LUXEMBURG (pop. 17,964), on the Alzette. It is built partly on a hill, and was formerly one of the most strongly fortified positions in Europe; but since the Grand Duchy was declared neutral, the fortifications have been razed. The city has some fine public buildings, of which the cathedral is the most noteworthy. Luxemburg is the chief trading centre of the country, and produces among other things woollen and cotton stuffs, leather, and gloves.

## CHAPTER XI

### DENMARK

1. The Kingdom of Denmark consists of Jutland (so called because it was inhabited by the Jutes) or the northern part of the Cimbrian peninsula, and the islands lying to the east. To Denmark belong also the Faroe Islands, Iceland, and Greenland ; and in the West Indies it possesses St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John.

2. **Physical Features.**—Denmark is connected with the continent by land only in the south of Jutland, where it borders on Schleswig. On all other sides it is surrounded by the sea, its coasts being washed in the west by the North Sea, in the north by the Skager Rack, in the north-east by the Kattegat, in the east by the Belts, the Sound, and the Baltic. Everywhere the sea around the coast is shallow, and in the west there are many treacherous sand-banks. Of the channels connecting the Kattegat with the Baltic, only the Great Belt is deep enough for war vessels. As the most direct route between the Baltic and the Kattegat lies through the Sound, this is the channel chiefly used by merchant ships.

Of the Danish islands east of Jutland, Fyen or Fünen lies nearest the coast. It is separated from the mainland by the Little Belt. With it are grouped many smaller islands, the chief of which are Langeland, Taasinge, and Arroe. Between the Great Belt and the Sound lies Zealand, with which are grouped, besides smaller islands, Amager, Saltholm, Falster, and Laaland. Between Zealand and Jutland is Samsoe ; and to the north,

in the Kattegat, are Anholt and Lessoe. To the east, in the Baltic, is the island of Bornholm.

Denmark consists of lowlands, and forms a part of the great northern plain. The low Ural-Baltic ridge runs up through Jutland from Holstein and Schleswig, keeping nearer to the eastern than to the western coast. Its highest elevations are Eiersbavnehöi and Himmelsberg, the latter 560 feet, the former 565 feet, above the sea. In the east there are fertile valleys, but the western districts consist chiefly of great tracts of moorland and sand. The sea has cut into the coasts numerous inlets, and in the north the district called *Aalborg* is isolated by the *Liim Fiord*, which until recent times did not quite reach from shore to shore. The fiord was united with the North Sea during a storm in 1825.

The islands, with the exception of Bornholm, have few elevations, and the highest of those which they possess are under 500 feet. On the coasts, however, there are some chalk cliffs. Bornholm belongs geographically to Sweden, and, like it, consists of granite and other old and hard rocks. Its surface is broken and rugged, and its seaboard is generally steep.

Denmark has many small streams, and in the eastern part of Jutland and in the islands there are numerous lakes. The climate is moist, and sea-fogs and clouds of sand are often blown over the land by the west winds which prevail during the greater part of the year. The winter is severe in the east, and the heat in summer is sometimes excessive.

**3. History.**—Denmark has been inhabited since the Neolithic age, of which there are many relics both in Jutland and in the islands. The earliest of these remains are great refuse-heaps, consisting of the skulls and bones of animals on which the people fed. That the people belonged to the Neolithic age we know, because of the thousands of implements of stone and bone which have been found among the refuse, not one is either Palæolithic or made of metal. There are also in Denmark innumerable prehistoric monuments of later times—among others, dolmens, chambered mounds, and stone circles.

Before the dawn of history, Denmark was occupied by

Scandinavian tribes, each of which had its own king and was independent of the rest. The various small kingdoms were united into one in the course of the ninth and tenth centuries, during which the people were gradually converted to Christianity. During a part of the eleventh century the King of Denmark was also the King of England, and in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the Danes made great conquests along the Baltic coast, which were not, however, permanently maintained. Margaret, Queen of Denmark, was elected Queen of Norway in 1387 ; and in 1397, by the treaty called the **Union of Calmar**, she arranged that Denmark, Norway, and Sweden should always be joined under one crown. This plan was not successful, and in 1521, under Gustavus Vasa, Sweden parted from the other Scandinavian kingdoms ; but Denmark and Norway remained united until 1814, when the latter country became an independent state under the King of Sweden. For about eight centuries Denmark held *Scania*, *Bleking*, and *Halland*, her possession of which gave her complete control over the Sound ; but in 1658 these districts were incorporated with Sweden. As the Duke of Holstein, the King of Denmark owed allegiance to the Emperor, and in the same capacity he was a member of the German Confederation after 1816. In 1863 Holstein and Schleswig were severed from Denmark after a war with Prussia and Austria.

**4. The People.**—Denmark, including the Faroe Islands, has an area of 14,124 square miles (that of Jutland being 9752), with a population, in 1880, of 1,980,259—or 143 to every square mile. The language of the Danes is one of the Scandinavian group of the Teutonic languages, and is spoken in three chief dialects ; one in Zealand, another in Jutland, and a third in Bornholm. The first is the dialect of literature ; the second approaches more closely to the Low Dutch languages ; the third resembles Swedish. The prevailing physical type of the Danes is still that of the primitive Aryans ; that is, the majority are tall, with fair hair and blue eyes. They are a vigorous, industrious, and loyal people, distinguished for their honesty and intelligence.

The crown had formerly absolute power, but this was modified in 1849, and the present system of government was established in 1866. The right of making laws belongs to the king and the Rigsdag or Parliament, which consists of two chambers, the Landsting and Folkesting. The Landsting acts as a Senate or Upper House, and some of its members are appointed by the crown, while others are indirectly elected by the people. The people choose, by direct election, the members of the Folkesting. Executive power is exercised by the king, who appoints ministers responsible to the Rigsdag.

The Danish army consists of the regular army and the reserve, and numbers about 50,000 men. There is also an extra reserve, with 14,000 men. All men above the age of twenty-two have to serve during certain periods for eight years in the regular army and reserve, and afterwards in the extra reserve. The navy is recruited by conscription from the coast population, and provision is made for about 1400 men.

Almost the entire population belongs to the Lutheran Church, which is established by the state, and ruled by seven bishops. In no other country is elementary education more widely diffused. From the age of seven to fourteen, attendance at school is compulsory, and there are few men or women who cannot read and write. There is a great university, with a polytechnic institution, at Copenhagen; and intermediate education is provided at good Gymnasia and Realschulen, modelled on those of Germany.

The absence of coal and iron prevents Denmark from having many important manufacturing industries, and about half of the population live by agriculture. The western districts of Jutland are too sandy to be made very productive, but they afford pasture for horses, cattle, and sheep. In the east, and in the islands, wide tracts are carefully and successfully cultivated, the chief crops being rye, oats, barley, and wheat. On the west coast of Jutland there are important fisheries, and herring, seals, and porpoises are caught in the Belts. There are many distilleries for the preparation of white brandy, and some

sugar refineries, and tobacco-factories ; and ship-building, the weaving of coarse woollen cloth by hand, the tanning of leather, and the making of gloves, pottery, and porcelain are more or less valuable industries.

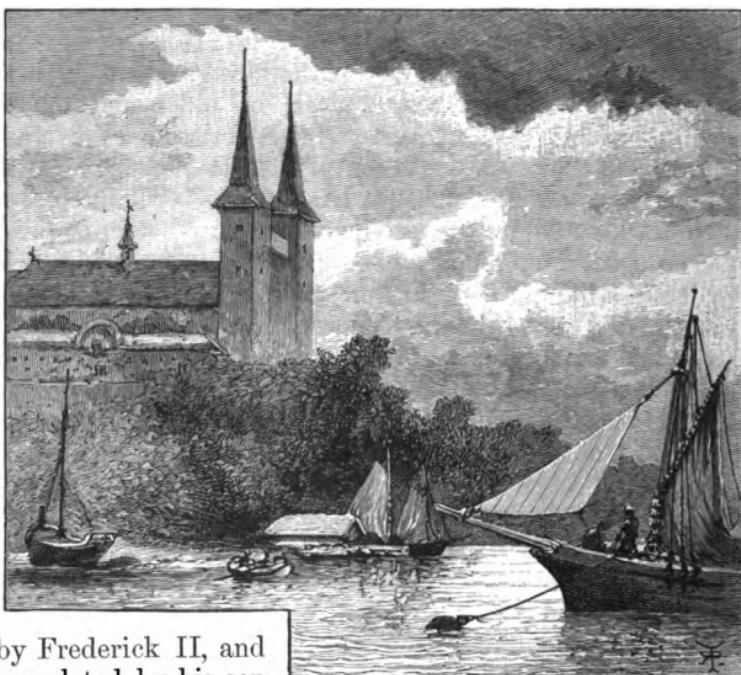
Denmark has few canals, but a good railway system, by means of which a considerable trade is carried on between different parts of the country. The western coast of Jutland is useless for commerce, as it has no open harbours, and, owing to its sand-banks and fogs, cannot be approached without difficulty. But the inland districts of the east are brought into communication with the sea by fiords and by the river Guden ; and in the Sound there are several good harbours, the best of which is that of Copenhagen. The most important foreign markets of Denmark are in Germany, England, Sweden, Norway, and the United States. To these and other countries it sends live animals, butter, ham, fish, eggs, and other exports, in exchange for such commodities as textile fabrics, cereals, metal manufactures, timber, and coal.

**5. Copenhagen.**—Denmark is divided into twenty-two *Æmter*, or administrative districts, twelve of which are in the islands, ten in Jutland. The capital is Copenhagen (pop. 286,900), the Danish name of which is Kjöbenhavn, or Merchants' Haven. In the eleventh century Copenhagen was a small village in the diocese of Roskilde, one of whose bishops built a fortress for its protection. It received the rights of a town in the thirteenth century, and became so important as a centre of trade that in the fifteenth century it was made the residence of the court. As Denmark at that time included Scania, Halland, and Bleking, Copenhagen held a central position with regard to the rest of the monarchy, and was in every way well fitted to be a capital. It lies in Zealand and the neighbouring island of Amager. The narrow arm of the sea which separates the two islands is crossed by two bridges, and serves as an excellent harbour. The chief part of the city is that which lies in Zealand. Near the centre of this part is a great square called Kongens Nytorv (the King's New Market), from which many of the principal thoroughfares

radiate. Between this square and the harbour is the old part of the town, where business is carried on; to the north and north-east extends the new town, in a part of which, called Frederiksstad, are the palaces occupied by the royal family, and many wide streets with handsome residences. Copenhagen is strongly fortified, but its old ramparts have been transformed into pleasant walks, adorned with trees. Among the public buildings is Christiansborg Palace, a vast edifice on an island in the older part of the town. In it are the chambers of the Rigsdag, a great public library, an armoury, and a picture gallery. In the Rosenborg Palace, an older and much more interesting building, erected by Christian IV at the beginning of the seventeenth century, are the Danish regalia and many treasures of art. It has fine gardens, which are much frequented by the people. The churches of Copenhagen are not very remarkable. The finest of them is the Vor Frue-Kirke ("Our Lady's Church"), in which are some elaborate sculptures by Thorvaldsen. The university, founded in 1479, is one of the foremost of Copenhagen's public institutions. The city has also a literary and scientific society, and an academy of arts; and in its museum of northern antiquities it possesses an unmatched collection of objects throwing light on prehistoric ages. A special museum is devoted to the exhibition of works by Thorvaldsen. The position of Copenhagen on the Sound, with its fine harbour, secures for it an important trade, and it has also various industries, the most famous of which are its manufactures of pottery and porcelain.

**6. Towns in the Islands.**—Copenhagen is the only great city in Denmark. Of the other places in Zealand, ROSKILDE is the most interesting. It was for several centuries the Danish capital, and has a fine cathedral, the most beautiful church in the country. Near this church is the site of a former temple of Odin, which held in the northern pagan world a position only second to that of the temple at Upsala. Opposite the narrowest part of the Sound is HELSINGÖR or ELSINORE, where the dues which used to be exacted from passing vessels were paid. These dues were abolished in 1857,

Denmark being compensated for her loss by the other maritime nations. Near Elsinore, and commanding the entrance to the Sound, is the picturesque castle of Cronborg, built between 1574 and 1585 for the purpose of enforcing the payment of the Sound dues. Between Elsinore and Copenhagen are the royal castles of Frederiksborg and Fredensborg. The former was begun



by Frederick II, and completed by his son Christian IV in 1608.

#### The original castle

was one of the most splendid palaces in northern Europe, but it was destroyed by fire in 1859, and only a small part of it is preserved in the present building. With its subsidiary buildings, the castle occupies three small islands in the lake of Hilleröd. Fredensborg, "the castle of peace," is so called because it was built in commemoration of a treaty of peace concluded with Sweden in 1720. This was the favourite residence of Queen Caroline

FIG. 28.—ROSKILDE.

Matilda, the unfortunate sister of George III. West of the Ise Fiord stands the old stronghold of Dragsholm, where Bothwell, the husband of Mary Queen of Scots, was imprisoned and died.

The chief town in the island of Fünen is ODENSE (pop. 29,804), on a stream of the same name. As the name (Odens-ey, Odin's Island) implies, it was at one time specially associated with the worship of Odin. In St. Knud's church, during the middle ages, was the shrine of the patron saint of the Danes. At Odense the first Danish book—"a life of St. Knud"—was written in 1109, and there, too, in 1482, appeared the first book printed in Denmark. As the birthplace of Hans Andersen, the town is also associated with the history of modern Danish literature.

The island of Bornholm has an extraordinary number of prehistoric monuments, and four old round churches which were built partly as places of defence. It supplies Copenhagen not only with marble and paving stones, but with the fine clay with which its porcelain is made. The capital is RÖNNE, near which are many relics of the people of the bronze and iron ages.

**7. Towns in Jutland.**—The largest town in Jutland is AARHUS (pop. 24,831), on the eastern coast. Its harbour has been artificially widened and deepened, and by railway it communicates with every other town in the peninsula. Thus it has become the chief centre of trade in Jutland. It is an old town, with some picturesque houses, and has a cathedral which was founded in the thirteenth century. On the Guden is RANDERS (pop. 13,457), an old town with a trade in gloves, and famous for the horses and cattle sent thither by the peasants of the neighbourhood to be shipped to England. AALBORG (pop. 14,152), on the Liim Fiord, is connected by a suspension bridge with the opposite side of the fiord, and is an important station on the route by which trade passes northward by railway to the Kattegat. It is an ancient town, and in its streets are some old houses with picturesque gables like those of the German Baltic cities. VIBORG, in the centre of the peninsula, was an

important place in the middle ages. It had a beautiful Romanesque cathedral, only a part of which survives in the modern church which has taken its place. Near Viborg is the hill called Dannerlyng, where the Jutes of pagan times elected the chiefs who were to be their kings.

**8. The Faroe Islands.**—The Faroe Islands ("the sheep islands") were discovered by Norsemen in the ninth century. They were subject to the Norwegian crown from about the year 1000, and were retained by Denmark after its separation from Norway. The group lies about 200 miles to the north of the Hebrides, and includes twenty-five islands, seventeen of which are inhabited. They have an area of nearly 500 square miles, and consist chiefly of trap rock, which in many places breaks off abruptly in wild precipices on the coast. The surrounding ocean is often stormy, and foams and rages between the narrow channels by which the islands are parted from one another. The surface is hilly, and in Slattaretindur, in the island of Oesteroe, rises to the height of 2792 feet. Barley is to some extent grown, but the soil is generally so thin and poor, and the winds which sweep over the islands are often so violent, and laden with so much salt moisture, that the crops are scanty. The short grass of the islands, however, affords sufficient pasture for sheep, and for a small, hardy breed of ponies. The climate is damp and variable, but the cold of winter is greatly tempered by the Gulf Stream. There are about 11,000 inhabitants. They are descendants of Norse settlers, and speak a dialect of the old Norse language. They are of simple manners, honest and vigorous, and live chiefly by cod-fishing, and the capture of whales. Myriads of wild birds haunt the cliffs, and their eggs and feathers are of much service to the islanders, who display great skill and daring in climbing to their nests. The women are noted for their deftness in the knitting of stockings. The capital is THORSHAVN, in Stromoe. The people have a Lagthing or elected local assembly of their own, and send two members to the Danish Rigsdag; and an amtman, or governor, represents the crown at Thorshavn.

**9. Iceland.**—Iceland was discovered at a very early period by Irish monks, and in the ninth century by Norsemen. From the year 874 the habitable parts of it were occupied by Norse settlers, who accepted Christianity in the course of the tenth century. They became subject to the Norwegian crown in 1261, and the island, like the Faroe Islands, was retained by Denmark after its connection with Norway was severed.

Iceland lies on the border of the Arctic Circle, and belongs geographically rather to America than to Europe. Its area is about 40,000 square miles, so that it is larger than Ireland. The coasts are deeply indented with fiords. Those on the eastern and southern sides do not cut very far into the island, but on the northern and western coasts peninsulas are separated from one another by the great bays called Huna Floi, the Breithi Fiord, and the Faxa Fiord. The greater part of the island consists of a high table-land, from which mountains rise, some isolated, and others grouped in ranges. The central and south-western parts of the island are occupied by volcanoes, twenty-nine of which are still active. The most famous of these, although not the most destructive, is Mount Hecla. Between the mountains lie beds of lava, and great *Jökuls* or glacier fields, the most important of which is the *Klofa Jökul*, in the south, covering an area of more than 3000 square miles. South of this vast glacier, which is more extensive than any in the Alps, rises *Oræfa* (6429 feet), the highest point of Iceland. There are several deep lakes, the largest being the picturesque Thingvalla Vatn in the south-west, and My Vatn in the north; and many short streams rush violently down from the glaciers.

Connected with the volcanic forces of the island are the hot springs called **Geysers**. They are widely distributed over the volcanic region, some of the most remarkable being those near Skalholt, in the south-west. In several cases their waters are thrown to a considerable height, the action of some being intermittent, that of others continuous.

In the north there is a week in summer during which the sun never sets, and a week in winter during which it

does not rise. In the south the longest day lasts twenty hours, the shortest four. The northern coast is much colder than the southern, not merely because of the difference of latitude, but because the Gulf Stream brings warm currents to the south, while the north receives a correspondingly cold current from Greenland. Even in the south snow falls during nine months in the year, but the cold in winter is not excessive. Both the East Greenland current and the Gulf Stream bring with them large quantities of drift-wood, which, in an island destitute of trees, are most welcome to the inhabitants.

Almost the only habitable parts of Iceland are strips of level land along the coasts. The winter is so prolonged that even barley and oats cannot be profitably grown. The chief crop is hay, and the wealth of the people consists mainly of sheep, cattle, and ponies. Many of the islanders spend a portion of their time in the capture of seals and the shooting of eider ducks; and in the spring, off the southern coast, there is much cod-fishing, in which French and Dutch fishermen also take part. At home the house-wife diligently knits stockings and gloves. There are in Iceland inexhaustible supplies of sulphur, but they have never been much utilised. Iceland spar, however, is to some extent exported. Among the other exports are live animals, salted meat, pickled salmon, wool, feathers, sheepskin, sealskin, and whalebone. In return for these Iceland receives colonial wares and manufactured goods, including a great deal of tobacco.

The population numbers about 72,000. They have sprung from the old Norse settlers, whose language, somewhat modified by time, they still use. They are sturdy, upright, and industrious, of an independent spirit, and strongly influenced by a sense of the obligations of kinship. They belong to the Lutheran Church, and have so firm a belief in the value of education that every child is taught to read and write. Even yet they have not forgotten the old traditions as to the gallant deeds of their forefathers; and to the Icelanders the world owes the preservation of the early poems and sagas of the Northmen.

In the Danish Cabinet there is a minister whose special business is to attend to the affairs of Iceland, and the crown is represented in the island by a governor. Since 1874 the people have been allowed, to a large extent, to govern themselves. They have an Althing, or local assembly, consisting of thirty-six members, thirty of whom are elected by the islanders, while six are appointed by the king. This assembly meets once in two years at REYKJAVIK (pop. 2300), the capital of Iceland and the chief centre of its trade. Reykjavik is built on an inlet of the Faxa Fiord, and consists mainly of small wooden houses. It has a school for advanced education, and institutions for instruction in divinity and medicine.

## CHAPTER XII

### SCANDINAVIA

**1. Boundaries.**—SCANDINAVIA, the largest peninsula in Europe, is intersected by the Arctic Circle, and stretches from north-east to south-west over a distance of about 1200 miles, covering an area of 294,000 square miles. Its coasts are washed in the north and north-east by the Arctic Ocean, in the west by the Atlantic, in the south-west by the Skager Rack and the Kattegat, and on the east by the Baltic and the Gulf of Bothnia. In the north-east it is separated from Russia by an irregular boundary, beginning with the lower part of the river Tornea, and ending with the Varanger Fiord.

**2. Highlands, Fiords, and Islands.**—From the head of the Varanger Fiord, in the north-east, to the Naze, in the south-west, there is a vast belt of table-land, with an average breadth of about 200 miles. This table-land consists of the oldest kinds of crystalline rocks, and is broken up into great masses or plateaux, called **Fieldene** or **Fields**, by deep, narrow ravines, many of which are filled with glaciers. From the table-land rise mountains, all of which are more or less isolated. The highest mountains are in the region to the south of the **Dovre Field**, where the Galdhöppingen reach an elevation of 8550 feet. North of the Dovre Field the highlands are called the **Kiolen Mountains**, and culminate in Sulitielma (6178 feet). The plateaux in the south are generally from 2600 to 3700 feet high; in the north, from 1600 to 2100 feet.

In the west the table-land descends abruptly to the Atlantic, which indents the coast-line with innumerable inlets called **fjords**. Many of these penetrate far into the land between the steep sides of mountains or between high cliffs, over which, in some cases, torrents fall, while in others glaciers advance close to the sea. The water of the fjords is so exquisitely clear that one may sometimes see the bottom at a depth of more than 100 feet. The longest and most picturesque fjords in the south are the Hardanger and Sogne Fjords, from which narrow arms diverge to right and left. North of the Arctic Circle many of the fjords are wider, and may almost be called gulfs.

Opposite the fjords are innumerable rocky islands which have been separated from the coast. Some of them are merely skerries or fragments of rock, while others are habitable, and of considerable extent. The most important of them are the **Lofoden Islands**, within the Arctic Circle, a rugged and mountainous group, in one of which, Vaaden, there are heights covered with perpetual snow. Between two of the islands of this group,

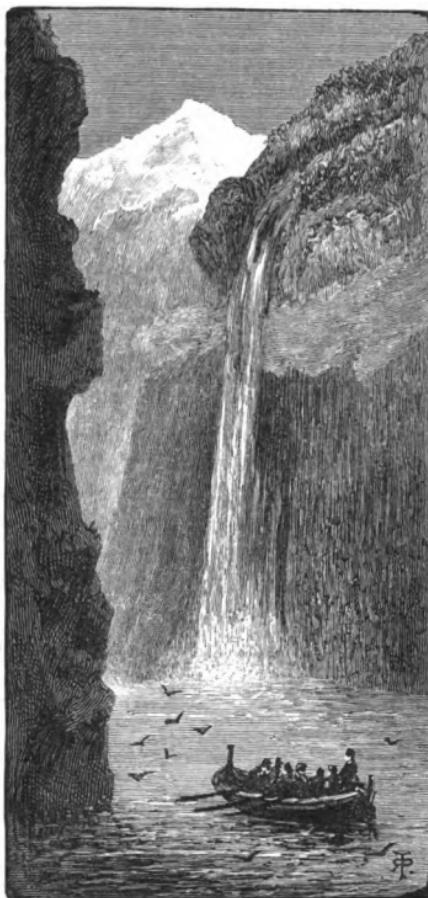


FIG. 29.—A NORWEGIAN FIORD.

Mosken and Moskenasö, is the famous whirlpool called the **Maelstrom**. Far to the north is the island of Mageroe, in which the precipitous cliffs of the North Cape rise from the Arctic Ocean to a height of 1010 feet.

On the eastern side of Scandinavia the table-land descends, by a series of terraces, more gradually than on the western side; and the shores of the Gulf of Bothnia and the Baltic are generally flat, covered in many parts by alluvial deposits brought down by rivers from the higher grounds. On this side, also, there are innumerable inlets, but they are small and tame in comparison with the fiords of the west. Of the islands opposite the eastern coast the largest is **Gotland**, a high table-land with cliffs. **Oeland**, near the seaboard, is a long, narrow island of like character.

**3. Rivers and Lakes.**—The rivers flow too swiftly to be of much service for commerce. They can be used, with few exceptions, only for the floating down of timber, and for the driving of mill-wheels. On the other hand, no rivers in the world are more picturesque. Many of them expand into beautiful lakes, and in other parts of their course rush through narrow gorges, or tumble over rocky heights, forming waterfalls and rapids that cannot be matched even in the wildest regions of the Alps. The Vöring Fos, behind the Hardanger Fiord, is one of the most famous of the Scandinavian waterfalls; but still grander is the magnificent Rjukand Fos, or Reeking Force, of the Maan Elf, or river, in southern Norway.

As the table-land is much nearer the western than the eastern coast, and has a general direction from north-east to south-west, the longest rivers are necessarily those that flow towards the south and south-east. Those to the west of the water-parting are shorter and even swifter than those to the east of it. The longest river in Scandinavia is the **Glommen**, which, springing from several small lakes, flows southward through Lake Oeresund to the Skager Rack, making in its course 20 waterfalls, the finest of which is the **Sarpen Fos**, ten miles from its mouth. East of the Glommen is the beautiful **Klar Elf**, which passes through Lake Faemund to Lake Wener. In the south

this lake has an outlet in the river **Göta**, which hastens, with a great volume of water, to the Kattegat, forming on its way the splendid Falls of Trolhättä. The **Dal Elf**, formed by the union of the eastern and the western **Dal**, enters the Baltic at **Elfkarlleby**, behind which it plunges over a number of rocky ledges with a noise like thunder. Among other rivers flowing in a south-easterly direction to the Baltic or the Gulf of Bothnia are the **Ljusne**, the **Indals**, the **Angerman**, the **Umea**, the **Skelleftea**, the **Pitea**, the **Lulea**, the **Kalix**, and the **Tornea**. All these rivers have a more or less parallel course. Beyond them the **Tana** flows to the Arctic Ocean.

Scandinavia has a great number of lakes, some of which, as already noted, are expansions of rivers. The largest of them are **Lake Wener**, **Lake Wetter**, and **Lake Mälar** in the south. **Lake Wener** covers an area of 2408 square miles. It has finely wooded islands, and picturesque ridges rise from its shores. **Lake Wetter** is a long sheet of water, lying from north to south, and partly surrounded by the steep and rugged cliffs of the **Omberg**. These two lakes are connected by the **Göta Canal**, which unites the Baltic with the Kattegat. It begins at the top of the fiord or Gulf of **Slätbaken**, near **Söderköping**, and advances westward to **Lake Wetter**. Beyond **Lake Wener** it flows to the **Göta** in a bed of granite, hewn out of the rock by the side of the **Trolhättä Falls**, which, before the making of this canal, presented an insurmountable obstacle to intercourse, by means of vessels, between the lake and the lower part of the river. **Lake Mälar**, one of the most beautiful of the Scandinavian lakes, lies from east to west, and is remarkable for the number of its bays, creeks, and islands, and for the cliffs, wooded heights, and fertile fields by which it is bordered.

**4. Climate.**—The eastern part of Scandinavia, being shut off from the north-west winds of the Atlantic, has greater extremes of climate than the western. That is, it is hotter in summer and colder in winter. The rivers are frozen in the south of Sweden for three or four months in the year, and the time during which the ice lasts increases as we advance northward. The like is true of the Baltic

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and the Gulf of Bothnia. Such is the tempering influence of the warm south-west wind on the western seaboard that the fiords of Norway, even those in the extreme north, are free from ice all the year round. On the other hand, the line above which there is perpetual snow is lower on the western than on the eastern side. This is due to the fact that the atmosphere is more heavily charged with vapour, and therefore more snow falls, in the neighbourhood of the Atlantic than in that of the Baltic.

The lower parts of Scandinavia were formerly covered with forests, but south of  $61^{\circ}$  they have been to a large extent cleared away to make room for cultivation. North of  $61^{\circ}$  they have not been much interfered with, and in that region vast tracts are richly wooded, chiefly with pine and fir. In the south the beech is the prevailing tree. At an elevation varying according to the latitude—but lower, in harmony with the snow-line, in the west than in the east—there is a line above which trees do not grow. As this line is approached, the trees diminish in size, and beyond them we come to moors, mosses, and lichens, and, higher up, to snow and glaciers. The loftier regions of Scandinavia, with their snow-covered expanses, their deep chasms, their rock-bound lakes, and rushing torrents and waterfalls, present many aspects of wild and desolate grandeur.

**5. History.**—The south-eastern part of Scandinavia, like Denmark, is remarkable for the extraordinary number and variety of its relics of prehistoric times. There are no refuse-heaps belonging to so remote an era as those of Denmark, but stone implements of the same period have been discovered; and there are hundreds of dolmens and chambered mounds or passage-graves, made during the later epochs of the Stone Age. The Bronze and the Iron Ages have also left an immense number of relics.

In early times the people were grouped in small tribal kingdoms, each of which sought to maintain its independence. They were of a bold and warlike temper, and from the latter part of the eighth century piratical hordes of Northmen made themselves for a long time the terror of

Europe. Those of the south-west, sailing from their wics or bays, came to be known as *Vikings*; and groups of them secured permanent settlements in Britain, Ireland, France, Sicily, and southern Italy. The Scandinavians of the south-east were not less adventurous, but they found an outlet for their energies chiefly on the eastern shore of the Baltic.

The tribes of south-eastern Scandinavia were divided into two great groups, called Svea or Swedes and Göta or Goths. The former held the northern part of the inhabited region; the latter, the southern. They spoke different dialects of the Scandinavian language, but belonged to the same race, and had essentially the same customs and institutions; and a great temple at Upsala, the chief seat of northern paganism, was regarded as the common inheritance of both. Towards the end of the ninth century the two groups are said to have been united under King Eric Edmundson, but they did not really become one people until the thirteenth century, when the dynasty of the Folkungar succeeded in asserting its supremacy. In the course of the eleventh century the way had been prepared for national unity by the general acceptance of Christianity, which had first been preached in Sweden, about two hundred years before it finally prevailed, by St. Ansgar of Bremen. Under the Folkungar, Finland was brought into subjection to the Swedish crown, and it remained connected with Sweden for about six centuries.

The Norse tribes, or those of the south-western part of the peninsula, were united, about the year 900, under Harold Haarfagr, or Fair Hair; and about a hundred years afterwards, mainly through the example of their kings Olav Trygvasson and Olav II or St. Olav, they were induced to accept Christianity. Knut, King of Denmark, conquered Norway in 1030; but after his death the country was ruled by Norse kings until the extinction of the native dynasty in the fourteenth century. In 1387 the crown was given to Margaret, Queen of Denmark, the wife of Haco VI of Norway, and the mother of Olav V, who died in boyhood.

In 1389 Queen Margaret joined to the crowns of

Denmark and Norway that of Sweden ; and in 1397, by the Union of Calmar, as already stated, she arranged that the three kingdoms should always be subject to one sovereign. So far as the Swedes were concerned, this union was generally rather nominal than real, and it was dissolved in 1521 by Gustavus Vasa, who in 1523 was chosen King of Sweden. Norway, however, remained connected with Denmark. Under Gustavus Vasa and his successors Sweden became a vigorous and well-organised state, and it was made one of the leading European Powers by the brilliant achievements of Gustavus Adolphus in the Thirty Years' War. By the Treaty of Westphalia, which brought the Thirty Years' War to an end, Sweden received Bremen, Verden, Wismar, and the greater part of Pomerania ; and afterwards, under Charles X, other important accessions of territory were secured at the expense of Denmark, Poland, and Russia. *Halland*, *Scania*, and *Bleking*, which were at this time taken from Denmark, belong geographically to Sweden, and she has never relaxed her hold over them. The Swedish monarchy had the foremost place among the northern nations in the seventeenth century, but after the death of the erratic Charles XII in 1718 it sank to a comparatively unimportant position, and gradually lost the lands it had won on the southern shore of the Baltic. In 1809 it also lost Finland, which was annexed to Russia.

In 1814 Norway was severed from Denmark, and made subject to the crown of Sweden ; and this settlement is still maintained. Sweden and Norway, however, do not form one state. Each is wholly independent of the other, with its own institutions and laws. They are politically related to one another only by the fact that they have the same king.

### *Sweden.*

**6. Sweden.**—Sweden occupies the eastern and less mountainous part of Scandinavia. It has an area of 170,979 square miles, with a population (in 1880) of 4,565,658—or 26 for every square mile. The smallness

of the population in proportion to the area is due to the fact that the greater part of the northern region is uninhabitable. The people are concentrated in the southern districts and along the shore of the Gulf of Bothnia.

The Swedish language is one of the Scandinavian branches of the Teutonic languages ; and it is spoken in two chief dialects, corresponding generally to the ancient distinction between the Swedes and the Goths. The majority of the people are tall, with fair hair, blue eyes, and long skulls ; and there is evidence that this is the physical type which has prevailed in Scandinavia ever since the peninsula was inhabited. The Swedes are intensely patriotic, but without violent prejudices against other nations. They are vigorous, industrious, sociable, and resolute in the maintenance of freedom. The inhabitants of the rural districts are remarkable for the pertinacity with which they cling to the ideas and customs handed down by their forefathers ; and they have many superstitious notions which have survived from pagan times.

The power of making laws belongs to the Diet or Parliament, acting in concert with the crown. Parliament consists of a first and second chamber ; the former being elected by provincial and some municipal councils, the latter directly by the people. Ministers responsible to Parliament are appointed by the king. In 1887 the army included 194,577 men. It is composed of men drawn by conscription, of enlisted troops, of certain forces maintained by the landowners, and of the militia of the island of Gotland. There is also a force of volunteers. In the navy in 1888 there were 3927 men.

The population belong almost entirely to the Lutheran Church, which is established by the state. It is ruled by twelve bishops. Much attention is devoted to educational needs. In every district there is a sufficient number of elementary schools, and, unless children are being properly trained elsewhere, attendance at them is compulsory. There are also many good middle schools, and Upsala and Lund have each a university.

More than half of the people are engaged in agriculture, which is much the most important industry. Wheat is

grown in the south, and rye and oats are produced farther north. Oats will not ripen as far north as  $65^{\circ}$ , nor rye beyond  $66^{\circ}$ . In the extreme north, the place of orchard fruit is taken by various kinds of wild berries, which are gathered in great quantities. Cattle, sheep, and horses are reared, but the length of the winter puts many difficulties in the way. A large number of people are employed in the forests in cutting down timber, and in the preparation of potash, pitch, and tar. Fisheries also occupy a considerable class, especially in the Kattegat and the Skager Rack.

The mining industries of Sweden are of great importance, the chief ores being those of iron, copper, and zinc. There are no coal-fields, though some seams of coal are worked in Scania. There are many great iron works, and the high quality of Swedish iron and steel is universally recognised. Much brandy is distilled, and there are sugar-refineries, and manufactures of tobacco, cotton, and other fabrics, glass, and porcelain. Sweden is also famous for its lucifer matches, and for the making of furniture and wooden window-frames.

Except in the south, where the railway system suffices for the wants of the country, the inland trade is carried on with difficulty. For foreign trade, however, Sweden's many excellent harbours afford ample facilities; and she has important commercial relations with Great Britain, Germany, Denmark, Russia, and Norway. Among her chief imports are textile fabrics, coal, and colonial wares; her exports include, among other things, timber, bar iron, and corn.

**7. Svealand.**—Sweden has few important towns, and they lie chiefly in the southern part of the country. Only in the larger towns are the houses generally built of stone; in the smaller places the people live in wooden dwellings, with roofs covered with shingle.

For administrative purposes Sweden is divided into twenty-four "Län" or Governments, but the older territorial divisions are those which the people chiefly recognise. These divisions are grouped in Svealand, Gotland, and Norrland. *Norrland* means simply the northern land;

*Svealand* and *Gotland* correspond to the two ancient kingdoms, by the union of which the Swedish monarchy was formed.

The capital is *Stockholm* (pop. 227,964), in Svealand. It was founded in 1250, and owes its greatness to its geographical position, which makes it an important centre of commerce between many of the inland districts and the Baltic. It lies at the eastern end of Lake Mälar, and is built chiefly on "holms" or islands, which are connected



FIG. 80.—STOCKHOLM. THE ROYAL PALACE.

with one another by bridges. The oldest part of the town is in the small islands of Stadsholm and Riddarholm (the City Island and the Knights' Island). Here the streets are narrow and irregular, but the houses are massive and lofty. On a height in the Stadsholm stands the royal palace, built in the Italian style; and near it, on the same island, is the great church of St. Nicholas, in which the kings are crowned. North of the Stadsholm, among other inhabited islands, is the Norrmalm, with wide streets and squares, and many fine public and private buildings. To the south is Södermalm, the northern side of which is so

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steep that its terraces of houses are reached partly by means of steps. It is crowned by St. Catharine's church, and from the top there is a magnificent view of Lake Mälar, of Stockholm itself, and of the channels by which it communicates with the sea. No town in northern Europe has finer surroundings than Stockholm, and along the north-eastern shores of the lake it is well supplied with public parks and gardens. Especially noteworthy are the zoological gardens, occupying a peninsula two miles long and a mile wide. Stockholm has many important scientific institutions, an academy of arts, a picture gallery, and a library ; and the greater number of Swedish books are issued from its printing-presses. Large quantities of timber and iron are sent to it to be exported, and among its manufactures are iron and steel wares, leather wares, cotton, woollen, and silk fabrics, glass, and porcelain.

**8.** Around Lake Mälar are the four districts, Upland, Södermanland, Nerike, and Westmanland. The chief town in *Upland* is UPSALA (pop. 21,249), which has never lost its importance since the time when its temple of Odin was the chief religious centre of Scandinavia. It has a cathedral, designed by a French architect in the thirteenth century. The university, founded in 1477, is the greatest seat of learning in Sweden. Among the treasures of its library is the famous "codex argenteus," containing parts of the Bible as Bishop Ulfilas translated it into Gothic in the fourth century. The MS. dates from the fifth century, and is written in letters of silver on a purple parchment. It was taken from Prague by the Swedes in 1648. In *Södermanland*, to the south of Lake Mälar, are NYKÖPING, a small seaport ; STRENGNÄS, with a cathedral ; and the manufacturing town ESKILSTUNA. In *Nerike*, at the western end of Lake Hielmaren, is OREBRO (pop. 13,893), with some manufactures and a trade in minerals. *Westmanland* is a hilly and picturesque district, the inhabitants of which are employed chiefly in agriculture and the rearing of cattle. Its chief town is WESTERAS, on the northern shore of Lake Mälar.

North of these districts is *Dalarne*, occupying the valleys of the eastern and western Dal Elf. It is inti-

mately associated with the history of Gustavus Vasa, who found among the people of this province his most vigorous supporters in the struggle which led to the separation of Sweden from Denmark. Its inhabitants live by mining and agriculture. The chief town is FALUN, near a great copper mine which has been worked for five hundred years.

**9. Gotland.**—All these districts and towns are in Svealand. To the south lies *Gotland*, the most fertile and the most densely-populated region of Sweden. East Gotland and West Gotland are the districts lying east and west of Lake Wetter. In *East Gotland* are NORRKÖPING (pop. 29,619), with woollen and cotton manufactures, and a trade in iron and copper; the episcopal city of LINKÖPING; MEDEVI, a watering-place, beautifully situated on Lake Wetter; and ATVIDABERG, with copper mines. The chief town in *West Gotland* is GÖTABORG (pop. 96,758), the second largest town in the kingdom. It lies between rocky heights at the mouth of the river Göta. An earlier town of the same name, built on the delta of the Göta, was destroyed by the Danes in 1611; and a few years afterwards the present town was founded by Gustavus Adolphus. It is the chief centre of traffic on the south-western side of Sweden, and has important manufactures and herring fisheries.

North of West Gotland are *Bohus-Län*, *Dalsland*, and *Wermeland*. The latter lies in the valley of the Klar-Elf, and has plains in the south, and a hilly district with beautiful scenery in the north. It has great iron mines, with various small towns which serve as centres for the iron trade. The chief town is CARLSTAD, on the northern shore of Lake Wener.

*Halland*, *Scania*, and *Bleking* occupy the districts in the extreme south and south-west. In *Halland* there are many tracts of sand and heath, but on the coast are several towns with fisheries and a shipping trade. Its chief town is HALMSTAD (pop. 10,084). *Scania* is famous for its fertility, and for the skill with which the soil is cultivated. On the coast are HELSINGBORG (pop. 16,912), opposite Helsingör, with an important trade with Zealand; LANDSKRONA (pop. 11,738), with the best harbour on the Sound; MALMÖ

(pop. 45,780), with manufactures and a trade in orchard-fruit. Inland lies LUND (pop. 14,822), a city of great antiquity, and more prominent in the middle ages than it is now. Its cathedral is the largest church in Sweden. Lund has had a university since 1668. *Bleking* is a most picturesque district with many wooded hills and pleasant valleys. It is famous chiefly for its timber and cattle. The chief town, CARLSKRONA (pop. 19,811), was founded by Charles XI in 1680. It is built on skerries, and is the principal naval arsenal of Sweden. Its docks are cut out of the granite rocks.

*Smaland* is a rather desolate plateau, with heaths and marshes, but it has some flourishing coast towns. At CALMAR (pop. 11,823) is the old castle in which the treaty called the Union of Calmar was concluded. JÖNKÖPING (pop. 19,391), at the southern end of Lake Wetter, is famous for its lucifer matches.

The island of *Oeland* is almost wholly agricultural and pastoral, but MÖCKELBY has a trade in alum. The capital is BORGHOLM. In *Gotland* is the interesting old town of WISBY, formerly one of the chief marts of the Hanseatic League. It has striking relics of its ancient prosperity in many fine churches and in its solid walls and towers.

10. *Norrländ*.—The great northern district called *Norrländ* takes in about a half of Swedish territory, but it has only scattered villages, with a few trading towns on the coast. Of these, the chief is GEFLE (pop. 21,508), in *Gestrikland*, with fisheries and a trade in timber. The capital of *Helsingland* is HUBIKSVALL, also with a trade in timber. Farther north are SANDSVALL, in *Medelpad*; and HERNÖSAND, in *Angermanland*—both with a coasting trade. LULEA, in *Westerbotten*, is the most northerly Swedish town in which a considerable traffic is carried on. TORNEA, formerly a Swedish town, was annexed to Russia with Finland. To make up for this loss, the Swedes built CARL JOHANNSTAD or HAPARANDA.

The inland districts, *Herjedalen* and *Jemtland*, have much grand scenery, with great forests and heaths. The few Swedish inhabitants are occupied chiefly with the rear-

ing of cattle. The only town or village of any importance is OESTERSUND, on the margin of Lake Storsjön.

11. **The Lapps.**—These northern districts are in part occupied by the **Lapps**, who are found over a wide region in Sweden, Norway, and Russia, between the Gulf of Bothnia, the Arctic Ocean, and the White Sea. Probably their number does not exceed 6000 or 7000. They speak



FIG. 31.—LAPPS.

a language allied to Finnish, but do not seem to belong to the Finnish race. Their stature is shorter than that of any other people in Europe. The skull is round, the face broad; and they have generally dark brown hair, with eyes of the same colour, and a dark complexion. They are indolent and good-humoured, nominally Christians, but in reality as much influenced as they ever were by pagan superstitions. Some of them have settled in wretched little villages on the coast, but the majority live a nomadic

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life, roaming about with their reindeer, which drag their sledges swiftly over the ice and snow.

*Norway.*

**12. Norway.**—NORWAY occupies the western part of Scandinavia and includes the loftier parts of the great table-land. It has an area of 125,205 square miles, with a population (in 1875) of 1,806,900. The people are somewhat jealous of their Swedish neighbours, but belong to the same race, and do not essentially differ from them in character and appearance. The Norse language is closely allied to Swedish and Danish. It is spoken only in outlying districts, Danish being the language chiefly used. The people, with few exceptions, belong to the Lutheran Church, the affairs of which are regulated by six bishops. The country is well supplied with elementary schools, which are maintained to a large extent at the public expense ; and almost all Norwegians can read and write. In the towns there are good middle schools and colleges, and Christiania has a university.

Norway, although subject to a king, is practically a republic. Its Parliament is an assembly called the Storthing, elected indirectly by the people. This assembly, when it meets, chooses one-fourth of its members, who act as a separate chamber called the Lagthing, the others forming a chamber called the Odelstthing. Bills can be introduced only in the Odelstthing. When they have been passed, they are sent to the Lagthing, which must either accept or reject them. In the event of a serious conflict of opinion between the two bodies they come together, and the question in dispute is settled by a majority of two-thirds of the voters. The crown may twice veto any measure ; but a bill passed three times by the Storthing becomes law without the king's assent. A Council of State, composed of two ministers and seven councillors, represents the crown ; and three members of this body—one minister, and two councillors, who are

changed every year—reside at Stockholm. The others remain at Christiania.

The army consists chiefly of troops raised by conscription. It numbers about 40,000 men, including reserves; but without the consent of the Storthing no more than 18,000 men can ever be under arms at any one time. Norway has also a small navy.

The country is too mountainous, and much of it lies in too high a latitude, to have a flourishing system of agriculture; and the rearing of cattle is also difficult. Cattle find sufficient pasture among the mountains in summer, but it is often hard to provide them with food during the long winter months. Mining is carried on in several districts, and many men are employed in the forests by which great tracts are covered. Fishing also gives employment to a large proportion of the population. Norway is famous for its herring fisheries; and in the north, especially in the Lofoden islands, immense quantities of cod are caught. There are few manufacturing industries. Only the rougher kinds of metal ware are produced, but the Norwegians have always displayed great skill in the building of ships and boats. Wood is prepared in various ways for export, and it is made to yield large quantities of potash, tar, and pitch. A flourishing inland trade is rendered impossible by the fact that there are few convenient means of communication; but there are many facilities for foreign commerce, and Norway has a considerable trade with England, Germany, Sweden, and Russia. Her chief exports are fish and timber; and among her principal imports are wheat, colonial wares, wool, cotton fabrics, and coal.

**13. Towns.**—For administrative purposes Norway is divided into twenty departments. It has very few important towns. The capital is Christiania (pop. 135,615). It lies on the Agger, in a beautiful valley opening out from the head of the picturesque Christiania Fiord. The original town on this site was Opslo, founded in 1058; but it was nearly destroyed by fire in the seventeenth century, and in 1674 Christian IV founded the present city, in which Opslo is included. Christiania has wide, regular streets, and among its chief

buildings are a royal palace, the house of the Storthing, and a cathedral. It has various manufactures, and exports iron, wood, glass wares, and anchovies.

Not far from Christiania, on the coasts, are DRAMMEN (pop. 19,391), at the head of the Drammen Fiord, the chief centre of the trade in timber; TÖNSBERG, said to be the oldest town in Norway; LAURVIK, with great iron works; FREDERIKSVÄRN and FREDERIKSTAD, fortified towns, the latter at the mouth of the Glommen; and FREDERIKSHALD, before whose walls Charles XII of Sweden was killed. The inland town KONGSBERG lies in the high, narrow valley of the Lauven, near a silver mine. This is the chief mining town in Norway.

Opposite CHRISTIANSAND, which lies on a spacious bay, is the island Flekkerö, in whose fine harbour ships take refuge from storms. At STAVANGER (pop. 22,634) there are great fisheries; and it has a cathedral of the eleventh century. BERGEN (pop. 46,552) was founded in 1069, and became the most important northern mart of the Hanseatic League. It occupies a magnificent position on the Waagen Fiord, with mountains in the background. It is the chief centre for the trade in fish, and presents a scene of great animation when, after the close of the fishing season, boats heavily laden come from the north. TRONDHJEM (pop. 23,753), on the fine fiord of the same name, was formerly the capital of Norway. It has an important foreign trade, with fisheries; and in the country behind it there are copper mines and iron works. It was founded by Olav Trygvasson in 997, and has a splendid cathedral.

North of Trondhjem there are only small fishing towns or villages; but some of them, during the fishing season, are visited by great numbers of boats. This is especially the case with the villages of the Lofoden islands, where, during the months of February and March, the crews of thousands of boats are engaged in the cod-fisheries. TROMSOE, on an island of the Senjen group, is an important station for fishing fleets bound for the Arctic Ocean. HAMMERFEST (pop. 2100) is the northernmost of Norwegian towns. It lies on the island of Qualö, at the foot of a hill overlooking a bay.

## CHAPTER XIII

### RUSSIA

**1. The Coasts.**—RUSSIA is an empire of vast extent, stretching eastward from the Baltic, across Europe and Asia, to Behring Strait. We are here concerned only with the part of it which lies in Europe. Even this is larger than all other European countries taken together. It covers an area of more than two millions of square miles, and is nearly forty times as large as England.

The northern shore of Russia is washed by the Arctic Ocean. It is flat and monotonous, and broken by many shallow openings. The largest of these is the White Sea, so called because of its ice and snow. On its southern shore the White Sea has the Gulfs of Onega and Archangel, parted from one another by Cape Onegal, opposite which lie the Solovetzki islands. In the north-west the narrow Gulf of Kandalaksha penetrates far into the land, forming the western boundary of the Kola peninsula, at the north-western extremity of which is the Varanger Fiord. At the entrance to the White Sea, on the eastern side, is the Gulf of Mezen, separated by the Kanin peninsula from the Gulf of Chaskaya, opposite which is the island of Kolguef. From the Gulf of Chaskaya the coast advances north-eastward in a deeply broken line to Cape Pyrkof, where a narrow strait separates the island of Waigatz from the mainland. Waigatz is parted by the Kara Strait from the island of Novaia Zemlia.

The Russian part of the Baltic coast begins a little to the north of Memel. As far as the entrance to the Gulf

of Finland it is flat and sandy, and it is broken by the Gulf of Riga, at the mouth of which lie the islands of Oesel and Dago. The Gulf of Finland advances eastward, separating the plateau of Finland from the great plain ; and on both sides, along a considerable part of its area, its shores are high and rocky.

In the part of the coast of the Black Sea which is included in European Russia there are generally steep cliffs, but they have been worn away at the mouths of rivers. Behind the coast, at the outlets of valleys, there are numerous small, longitudinal lakes called **Limans**, which have been separated from the sea by the accumulation of alluvial deposits. The Russian seaboard begins at the northernmost mouth of the Danube, and, advancing towards the north-east, is broken by the mouth of the Dniester. Farther on, we come to the mouths of the Dnieper, between which and the gulf called the Dead Sea there is a peninsula with long, narrow projections, two in the west and one in the east. Beyond this peninsula is the Crimea, connected with the mainland by the isthmus of Perekop, and having in the south the fine range called the **Yaila Mountains**, which culminate in the **Chatyr Dagh** (5450 feet). These mountains are a western continuation of the Caucasus. Through the Strait of Kertch the Black Sea communicates with the Sea of Azof, a shallow brackish sea, on whose flat shores are many lagoons, separated from it by narrow strips of land.

East of the Black Sea, and parted from it by the Caucasus, lies the **Caspian Sea**, the greatest land-locked sea in the world. It is the remnant of a much larger sea, which included the Sea of Aral, and it occupies the deepest part of a vast depression stretching around its eastern, northern, and north-western shores. In this depression are innumerable salt lakes, and many of the streams passing through it are also saline. Only a part of the north-western coast is included in Europe.

**2. High and Low Grounds.**—The Urals are the only important range of mountains in Russia. They form the water-parting between the rivers of eastern Europe and north-western Asia. The range

is not lofty, having no elevations that rise to a height of 6000 feet, and few that rise above 5000 feet. It is divided into the northern, the middle, and the southern Urals. The *northern Urals* are less continuous than the other parts of the chain, and at one point almost fade into the plain ; but they rise again in the Pae Khoi Mountains, which advance in a north-westerly direction to the shore of the Arctic Ocean, and reappear in the islands of Waigatz and Novaia Zemlia. The Töll Poss, in the northern Urals, reaches a height of 5140 feet. The *middle Urals*, which culminate in Deneshkin Kamea (5357 feet), are famous for their rich supplies of minerals. The *southern Urals*, although in Iremel they attain a height of 5040 feet, do not generally rise above 2000 feet. They break up into three chains, which radiate from the main range, the westernmost being considerably higher than the other two.

In the north-western part of Russia there is another tract of comparatively high ground. This is the table-land of **Finland**, consisting of old, hard rocks, corresponding to those of the Scandinavian table-land, from which it is parted by the Gulf of Bothnia. Finland has no chains of mountains ; but its surface has a general elevation ranging from 400 to 600 feet, and in the north-east it rises, in Teiri Harja, to a height of 1027 feet. The coasts, especially those of the Gulf of Finland, are in many places steep, and opposite them rise the rugged Aland Islands and innumerable skerries. The hollows of the table-land are occupied by hundreds of lakes, the largest being those in the south-east. They are fed by rapid streams, which form picturesque waterfalls ; and in some cases the water of the lakes escapes only by evaporation. There are also many lakes in the peninsula of Kola, between the White Sea and the Arctic Ocean.

With the exception of the mountains in the southern part of the Crimea, the rest of Russia consists of a vast Plain, the continuation of the plain which begins at the coasts of the Low Countries and advances eastward through North Germany. This plain is not, however, perfectly flat. It is crossed by two wide, low ridges, the

Ural-Carpathian ridge, and the Ural-Baltic ridge. The former begins with the Obshi-Sirt, at the south-western end of the Urals, and is pierced by the Volga, on the right bank of which it forms a range of heights called the Ergeni hills. These proceed southward to the valley of the Manitch, where the ridge takes a north-westerly direction, spreading out as a plateau to the north of the Black Sea. It reaches to the eastern offshoots of the Carpathians, and does not finally sink to level ground until it comes to the valley of the Elbe. The Ural-Baltic ridge begins in the hilly district of Perm, and extends to the region through which flows the northernmost part of the Volga. There it sinks to the plain, but farther on it reappears as the Valdai hills, which in their greatest elevation attain a height of 1066 feet. From the Valdai hills the ridge advances to the Baltic, along whose southern shore it passes to the valley of the lower Elbe, where it turns northward into Jutland. An offshoot of the Ural-Baltic ridge quits it between the sources of the Petchora and the Vitchegda, and proceeds, as the so-called Timan range, towards the Arctic Ocean.

There are depressions in the plain as well as these slight elevations. One of them lies east and west on the southern side of the Ural-Baltic ridge, and another on the northern side of the Ural-Carpathian ridge ; and in both, especially in the latter, there are great tracts covered with morasses. A third depression, to the east of the table-land of Finland, stretches from the Baltic to the White Sea. In this depression there are many lakes, the largest of which is Lake Ladoga, the greatest lake in Europe. It is 120 miles long and 70 miles broad, and covers an area of 6804 square miles. East of it lies Lake Onega. Both of these lakes are remarkable not only for their extent, but for their depth ; in some parts each of them has a depth of more than 700 feet. In this respect they present a striking contrast to the shallow Lakes Peipus and Ilmen, south of the Gulf of Finland.

**3. Rivers.**—Russia is abundantly supplied with rivers, many of which are of great length, and drain areas of vast extent. They rise at comparatively low elevations, and

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generally flow slowly. Owing to the scantiness of the rainfall, their volume is small in comparison with their length; but during the summer rains, and at the time when the ice and snow melt, they often overflow their banks.

They may be divided into four groups, in accordance with the seas into which they fall. Two great rivers, the Ural and the Volga, drain into the Caspian Sea; but the Ural is only in part a European river. The Volga is the longest river not only in Russia but in Europe. It rises in a small lake among the Valdai hills, near the sources of the Dnieper and the western Dvina. In the upper part of its course it furrows the southern slope of the Ural-Baltic ridge, flowing between high wooded banks. At Subtzof it reaches the plain, in which it remains during the whole of its middle course. It has a general easterly direction until its junction with the Kama, when it turns towards the south. Above Saratof it begins to penetrate the Ural-Carpathian ridge, and from this point until it takes a south-easterly direction it has on the right bank steep cliffs, which formerly bordered the Aral-Caspian Sea. At Tzaritzin the Volga is divided into two arms, which form a long, narrow delta; and at Astrakhan the river pours its waters into the Caspian Sea through more than sixty mouths. The Volga is navigable for large vessels up to Nijni Novgorod, for smaller vessels up to Tver, and for craft drawing no more than two feet of water up to a point very near its source. Its chief tributaries are the *Kama* on the left bank, and the *Oka* on the right, both of which are also navigable over a great part of their course. The *Oka* flows between low banks through one of the most fertile districts of central Russia.

Among the rivers feeding the Black Sea we may class the *Don*, which reaches it indirectly through the Sea of Azof. The *Don* rises in a marshy lake not very far from the sources of the *Oka*, and pierces the Ural-Carpathian ridge. It is navigable from Voronej, but sand-banks at its mouths, and the irregularity of its supply of water, detract from its utility as a channel for commerce. During a part of its course it flows very near the Volga, with which

it is connected by a canal. Its chief tributary is the *Donetz*, on the right bank. The rivers which flow directly into the Black Sea are the Dnieper, the Bug, and the Dniester. The *Dnieper* is the third longest river in Europe. It rises in a marshy district on the southern slope of the Ural-Baltic ridge, and as far as Smolensk flows generally between rather high banks. Below Kief it pierces the Ural-Carpathian ridge, flowing swiftly through a narrow defile, and forming so many rapids that navigation is rendered impossible. From Alexandrovsk, where it reaches lower ground, it flows slowly, in a wider bed, to its mouths. With the exception of the parts in which its rapids occur, the Dnieper is navigable nearly to its source; but it is often very shallow, and dredging is necessary to keep open the channels by which it reaches the Black Sea. Its chief tributary on the right bank is the *Pripet*, which, with its affluents, passes through the vast, low-lying marshes of Pinsk and Minsk, which are now being drained. West of the Dnieper are the **Bug** and the **Dniester**, both of which are navigable, but, like the larger river, form rapids in penetrating the Ural-Carpathian ridge. The Dniester is only in part a Russian river. It rises in Galicia, on the northern slope of the Carpathians.

The chief Russian rivers flowing into the Baltic are the Vistula, the Niemen, the western Dvina, and the Neva. The **Vistula** is in part an Austrian, in part a Prussian river, but in the middle part of its course it drains Poland. It is navigable from the point where it is joined by the San. The **Niemen**, which is a Prussian river below Thorn, is navigable from Grodno. The **western Dvina** has an ample supply of water at the time of the melting of the snow, but at other periods of the year its many shallows make navigation difficult. The **Neva** is a short but wide and rapid river. It flows from Lake Ladoga, and thus indirectly drains Lake Onega and Lake Ilmen, both of which are connected by rivers with Lake Ladoga. At St. Petersburg the Neva enters the Gulf of Finland through four channels.

Of the rivers flowing into the Arctic Ocean the most important is the **northern Dvina**, which is formed by the union of the *Sukhona* and the *Vitchegda*. It is navigable

almost to its sources ; and in the days when Russia possessed no part of the Baltic or the Black Sea, it was of great importance for commerce. The Petchora is also navigable, but drains too desolate a region to be of much service.

**4. Climate.**—The climate of Russia is only to a slight extent affected by the Arctic Ocean and the inland seas. It is therefore intensely cold in winter, and relatively warm in summer. But the country is of such enormous extent that the degrees of heat and cold, and the length of the winter and summer, differ widely in different regions. The farther north we go, the longer is the winter, and the shorter the summer ; and of places in the same latitude those which lie farthest to the east have generally the greatest cold in the one season, and the greatest heat in the other.

North of the Arctic circle the winter lasts more than eight months, the Arctic Ocean being frozen from the end of September till the middle of June. This desolate region consists chiefly of "tundras," or moss-covered morasses ; and the only kinds of vegetation that flourish to any extent are mosses and lichens. From the Arctic circle to  $57^{\circ}$  the rivers are frozen from six to seven months ; and there is a rapid transition from winter to summer, and from summer to winter. Within this zone oats, barley, rye, and flax are grown, with increasing success as we advance southward, and there are vast forests of pine and birch. Between  $57^{\circ}$  and  $50^{\circ}$  there is a comparatively temperate zone, but the winter lasts longer and the summer is warmer than in the parts of western Europe which lie on the same latitudes. In the zone to the south of  $50^{\circ}$  the winter is in some parts shorter, but it is still severe, and navigation is impossible for more than three months on the Volga at Astrakhan, and for nearly three months on the Dniester at Kherson. Within the first of the two latter zones, and in a part of the second, agriculture flourishes, and wheat and hemp are grown in addition to the cereals of the more northerly district. There is ample pasturage for cattle and horses, and many tracts are covered with forests of lime and oak trees. In

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a wide district within the two zones the ground is covered to a considerable depth with a peculiar kind of **black earth**. This is the most fertile soil in Europe, and produces splendid cereal crops.

South of the black earth country, and extending eastward from the mouths of the Danube, is the great, desolate district called the Steppes. It includes a part of the plateau north of the Black Sea, but widens out in the area of depression lying to the north-west and north of the Caspian. This dreary, treeless region, which connects south-eastern Europe with Siberia, brightens for a while during the short spring, when various coarse grasses shoot up to a great height, and afford pasture for horses, cattle, and sheep. The crocus, the hyacinth, the tulip, and the snowdrop also appear in rich abundance. But all vegetation is scorched by the fiery heat of summer, and during the long winter the snow lies deep, and fierce storms often sweep across the land. In the southern steppes, however, some parts are capable of cultivation, and produce, besides cereal crops, vines, olives, and melons.

There are many kinds of wild animals in Russia. In the Arctic regions the polar bear is not uncommon, and farther south there are, in some of the great forests, wolves, bears, wild boars, elks, and bisons. In the north there are sables and other animals valued for their furs.

**5. History.**—The greater number of the inhabitants of Russia speak Slavonic languages. The word “Slav” is not known to have been used earlier than the sixth century, but long before that time a large part of the eastern plain was in the possession of Slavonic tribes. They were separated from the Baltic by Lithuanians, Letts, and Finns, and from the Black Sea and the Caspian by various Turanian peoples. Many of the *western Slavs*, as we have seen, settled in lands that had belonged to the Germans, and were afterwards absorbed by Germany, while others, although retaining their native speech, became subject to the Empire. Of the independent western Slavs, the Poles were the most important. Occupying the district now called Posen, and a part of the Polish territory now included in Russia, they gradu-

ally formed a great kingdom, which, when at the height of its prosperity, was the strongest power in eastern Europe.

The *eastern Slavs* were settled chiefly in the neighbourhood of Lake Ilmen and along the banks of the middle Dnieper. They had two prominent cities, Kief and Novgorod. In the eighth century the people of Novgorod were often attacked by Swedish invaders, to whom for a while they became subject. They recovered their independence, but in the ninth century, perplexed by various troubles, they invited Rurik, the chief of a Swedish tribe, to come to their aid. Rurik, attended by his followers, responded to their call, and succeeded in founding a powerful kingdom. Under his successor Kief was included within the new state, and became its capital. The Swedes were called by the Finns “*Russ*” or Russians, rowers or oarsmen ; and this name was by and by applied to the entire people over whom Rurik’s dynasty ruled. The kingdom was steadily extended until it took in a great part of what is now Russia, but it had the disadvantage of being cut up into a number of principalities, which, although nominally subordinate to the ruler of Kief, were almost or quite independent.

In the thirteenth century the divisions of Russia led to its being conquered by the Mongols or Tartars, who, under Tschengis Khan, advanced into Europe through the south-eastern plain, and formed the mighty Khanate of **Kaptchak**, called also the Land of the Golden Horde. Novgorod alone retained its independence ; the Russians elsewhere had to pay tribute to the barbarians, and for about 250 years remained subject to them. The way was thus opened to the Poles, who, advancing from the west, seized great tracts of Russian territory. The Lithuanians, coming from the north, also founded a powerful state at the expense of Russia.

The deliverance of the Russians was effected by the rulers of MOSCOW. This great city was founded in the twelfth century, and in the fourteenth it became the seat of a Grand Duchy. Through the attacks of the powerful Mongolian conqueror, Timour or Tamerlane, the Khanate of Kaptchak was broken up into several small

independent khanates ; and this enabled Ivan I, the Grand Duke of Moscow, to break the yoke of the Tartars. He also subdued Novgorod, and recovered from Lithuania much territory which had formerly been a part of Russia. His work was continued by his successor, Vasili Ivanovitch, who took the title of Czar ; and under Ivan II Russia annexed the khanates of Kazan and Astrakhan, forcing her way to the Urals and the Caspian Sea, and began the conquest of Siberia. The extinction of the male line of the dynasty of Rurik at the end of the sixteenth century was followed by a time of loss and confusion, but under the house of Romanof, which secured the crown in 1613, Russia resumed her career as a conquering power, and steadily won back the lands which had been taken from her during her subjection to the Mongols. At the end of the seventeenth century her territory extended from the Arctic Ocean to the Sea of Azof, but she was excluded from the Baltic by the Swedes, and from the Black Sea by the Tartars of the Crimea.

The wars of Peter the Great with Charles XII of Sweden enabled Russia to reach the Baltic. The country was thus brought into more intimate connection with western Europe ; and the Czar, who afterwards took the title of "Emperor of all the Russias," showed his consciousness of the importance of the change by building St. Petersburg, and transferring thither the seat of government from Moscow. Access to the Black Sea was obtained by the annexation of the Crimea in 1783. Russia was also extended towards the west by the partitions of Poland, the first of which took place in 1772, the second in 1793, and the third in 1795. In 1809 Finland was added to the empire.

**6. The People.**—In 1885 Russia had a population of 91,888,847. Great as this population is, it is small in comparison with the area of the country, giving only 44 persons to every square mile.

About four-fifths of the people speak Slavonic languages. This does not mean that they are of pure Slavonic blood, for so many races have settled in the land that the present inhabitants are of very mixed origin. The Russian

Slavs are generally of middle height, not of a very active temperament, but capable of great physical endurance, and remarkable for the passion with which they devote themselves to any cause for which their enthusiasm is awakened.

They are divided into groups, the largest and most important of which is the group consisting of the **Great Russians**, who number about 48,000,000. The Great Russians occupy the central and northern parts of Russia, and it was mainly by them that the present empire was formed. South of Great Russia is **Little Russia**, to the east of which lies the district known by the Polish name of the **Ukraine**, or the border-land. The Ukraine is inhabited chiefly by the **Don Cossacks** or Kasaks, a word meaning horsemen. The Cossacks are a brave, warlike people, who delight in riding wildly across the steppes, and find little to interest them in ordinary industrial pursuits. As light cavalry they are among the most dashing soldiers in the world. They are ranked as Slavs, and in language and appearance are closely akin to the Little Russians. The two peoples together number about 20,000,000. In the central and western parts of West Russia are the **White Russians**, of whom there are about 4,000,000; and west of them, in Poland, are about 6,000,000 of **Poles**. The Great Russians, the Little Russians, and the White Russians have essentially the same characteristics, but they speak different dialects of Russian, and have to some extent different customs. Of the three the Little Russians are endowed with the highest intellectual gifts. The Poles have a speech of their own, which, like Russian, belongs to the Slavonic group of the Aryan languages; and the people are of purer Slavonic descent than their Russian neighbours. They cherish the memory of the ancient greatness of their country, and have never ceased to hope that they may again be united in a revived Poland.

The **Lithuanians**, in the northern part of West Russia, and the **Letts**, settled mainly in Courland and Livland, are allied peoples, speaking different dialects of an independent Aryan language. There are also about a million **Germans** in Russia, settled partly in the Baltic provinces,

partly in the southern districts of the empire ; and in the southern part of Finland there are between 200,000 and 300,000 Swedes.

Of the non-Aryan inhabitants of Russia, the **Finns** form one of the most important groups. They speak a Turanian language, allied to the Magyar and Turkish languages, and are numerically the chief element of the population in Finland and Esthland. Peoples speaking Finnish languages are also settled in several districts in the neighbourhood of the Urals, and in some districts of the middle Volga. North of the Finns of Finland are the **Lapps**, belonging to the same race as the Lapps of northern Sweden and Norway. The **Samoyedes**, who are still for the most part barbarians, roam over the Arctic regions to the east of the White Sea. **Tartars** occupy parts of Kazan and the Crimea, and their languages have been adopted by the **Bashkirs** and some other Finnish tribes of the Urals. In the eastern steppes are the **Kalmucks**, a Mongolian nomadic people. There are also in Russia nearly three millions of **Jews**. They live chiefly in Poland, Lithuania, White Russia, and the Ukraine.

**7. Religion and Education.**—The Russian Slavs were converted to Christianity in the course of the tenth and eleventh centuries. As they were more directly under the influence of the Byzantine than of the Western Empire, the form in which Christianity reached them was naturally that of the **eastern or Greek Church**. This is still the Established Church of Russia, and about four-fifths of the population belong to it. It is ruled by a body called the Holy Synod, and is divided into eparchies or dioceses. Of these dioceses three—those of Moscow, Kief, and Novgorod-St. Petersburg—are under archbishops of the highest rank. The clergy consist of two distinct groups, the secular or white clergy, who are married, and the regular or black clergy, on whom celibacy is obligatory. It is from the latter that the higher officials of the Church are chosen.

The Roman Catholic Church has between seven and eight millions of adherents, including most of the inhabitants of Poland ; and the Lutheran Church prevails in Finland and the Baltic provinces. Among the non-Aryan

population of eastern and south-eastern Russia there are between two and three millions of Mohammedans. The religion of the Kalmucks is Buddhism in the form it has assumed in Tibet.

There are in Russia nine universities—those of St. Petersburg, Moscow, Warsaw, Dorpat, Helsingfors, Kief, Kharkof, Odessa, and Kasan. In the more important towns there are also Gymnasia for the higher education of boys and girls, and various technical institutions for instruction in the principles of agriculture and the manufacturing industries. The provision for popular education differs widely in different parts of the empire. In Finland almost every one can read and write, but this cannot be said of any other district of Russia.

**8. Government.**—The form of government is an absolute hereditary monarchy, but the power of the Czar or Emperor is practically limited by certain fundamental laws and great traditional principles of policy. He is aided in the work of government by four boards or councils, whose members are appointed by the crown. One of these is the Council of the Empire, whose chief functions are to offer advice with regard to projects of law, and to discuss questions of finance. The Ruling Senate is the high court of justice, and superintends the various courts of law. A third college consists of a committee of ministers, including, among others, the ministers for foreign affairs, for home affairs, for war, for the navy, for public instruction, for justice, for public works and railways. The Holy Synod, already referred to, is kept in relation with the crown by the procurator-general, without whose sanction its decisions are not valid. Its president is the metropolitan of Novgorod-St. Petersburg.

Finland is ruled by the Czar as Grand Duke, and has a Parliament, consisting of four estates—the nobles, the clergy, the burghers, and the peasants. This body has the right of accepting or rejecting measures submitted to it by the Grand Duke. A committee for the affairs of Finland, sitting at St. Petersburg, and a senate, sitting at Helsingfors, are responsible for the work of administration.

The Russian army consists of troops drawn by conscription, to which all men above twenty-one years of age are liable. It is divided into the regular army, the reserve, and the militia ; and in the event of war Russia would have at her disposal more than five millions of men, about two millions of whom would belong to the militia. The Russian navy, which is divided into the fleet of the Baltic and that of the Black Sea, was manned in 1888 by 26,000 sailors.

**9. Industry and Trade.**—About two-fifths of the cultivable land of Russia belongs to the crown, about one-fourth to the landed proprietors, and about one-third to the peasantry. Much the most important industry is agriculture, and the chief cereal crops are oats, rye, wheat, and barley. Wheat is produced in the central and western districts, where also hemp and tobacco are grown. In the south, especially in the country around Astrakhan and in the Crimea, the vine is extensively cultivated. Cattle, sheep, and horses are reared chiefly in the steppes. A considerable class devotes itself to the hunting of bears, wolves, foxes, and deer, and to the trapping of sable and other fur-bearing animals ; and important fisheries are carried on, especially in the Caspian Sea, in Lakes Ladoga, Onega, Peipus, and Ilmen, and in the Volga and other rivers. Of the fish caught the most valuable are the tunny, the salmon, the sturgeon, and the anchovy. In the middle Urals there are great mines producing gold, copper, platinum, and iron. Coal also is found to some extent in the Urals, and in the basins of the Donetz and the Vistula. Salt is yielded in great quantities by the lakes lying in the area of depression to the north and north-east of the Caspian.

Manufacturing industries, for which fuel is provided by Russia's enormous forests, are steadily increasing. They are carried on chiefly in St. Petersburg, and in Moscow and other towns of Great Russia. Among the more important manufactured products are cotton and woollen fabrics, tobacco, and glass. There are also great iron and steel works, and sugar refineries ; and Russia produces much leather, the finer kinds of which are everywhere well known.

During the summer the rivers of Russia give great facilities for commerce, and their usefulness has been immensely increased by a system of canals by which they are brought into relation with one another and with the sea. Railways also connect the chief commercial centres with each other; and in winter sledges are everywhere used for traffic. Thus an important trade is maintained not only between different parts of the country, but between Russia and other nations. The European countries with which she has the most important commercial relations are Germany, England, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and France. She has also a considerable trade with the United States, China, and Persia. To the west, by the Baltic and the Black Sea, partly also by land, she sends her natural products, especially grain, flax, wool, and timber; to the east, by two great routes, one of which crosses the Urals, while the other passes round them in the south, she exports manufactured goods. Among her imports are raw cotton, raw silk, cotton yarn, wine, and tea. Tea is more generally used in Russia than in any other European country.

**10. Towns and Villages.**—European Russia is divided into sixty-eight governments, but the divisions chiefly recognised are those which have sprung from general historic causes, and which mark obvious distinctions of language and custom. In comparison with the population and the extent of the country, there are few great towns, the vast majority of the people being engaged in agriculture, and living in villages. A village in Russia is called a "mir," or "world," and each is a little world in itself. The land around the village, consisting of arable land and grazing grounds, belongs, not to individual peasants, but to the villagers as a community, and is parcelled out among the members in accordance with ancient usages. This system has prevailed in many parts of the world at an early stage of civilisation, but in Europe it has survived nowhere except in Russia. The village community manages its own affairs, electing a "starost," or "elder," who acts in association with the communal assembly. Until recent times the peasantry were serfs, who, although they culti-

vated the land, and divided it among themselves as they do now, kept only as much of the produce as their lords allowed them to retain. In 1861 they were liberated, the nobles being compensated, at the cost of the peasantry, for the loss thus sustained.

The towns and villages of Russia present a very different aspect from those of western Europe. The dwellings of the peasantry are for the most part small wooden cabins, with thatch roofs. In the towns there are great market-places, and many of the houses have roofs painted green, blue, or red.

11. **St. Petersburg.**—The capital is St. Petersburg (pop. 928,016). Before reaching the Gulf of Finland, the Neva divides into two arms, the Great Neva, and the Great Nevka, each of which in its turn throws off an arm, the Little Neva and the Little Nevka. On the islands between these channels, and on the neighbouring mainland, St. Petersburg is built. The site consisted originally of malarious marshes, but they have been carefully drained. The city was planned by Peter the Great on a scale of great magnificence, and is one of the most splendid capitals in Europe. Its streets, called Prospects or Perspectives, are wide, and it has many spacious squares, and fine buildings, both public and private. The chief part of St. Petersburg lies on the mainland, south of the Great Neva. In this district is the Nevsky Prospect (the Neva Perspective), which is generally considered the grandest street in Europe. Among the chief buildings of St. Petersburg are the Winter Palace and the Hermitage, two imperial palaces on the southern bank of the Great Neva. They are connected by galleries, and in the Hermitage are famous collections of works of art and a library. For the various departments of the Government there are several massive edifices, the chief of which is the Admiralty, with a lofty gilded spire. Of the churches the most prominent are the cathedral of St. Isaac and the cathedral of St. Peter and St. Paul; the latter with a gilded spire, the former with five gilded bronze domes. Besides its university, St. Petersburg has academies of science and art, a magnificent imperial library, and various

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institutions for technical education. Its manufacturing industries are of great importance. Porcelain of fine quality, and beautiful tapestry, mirrors, and artistic objects of bronze and crystal are made in imperial institutions ; and among the products of private establishments are woollen and cotton fabrics, carpets, machinery, tobacco, and sugar. St. Petersburg has far-reaching commercial relations with the interior, and it is the chief port for the foreign trade of Russia.

Near St. Petersburg, on the island of **Kotlin**, in the Gulf of Finland, is **KRONSTADT**, the strongly fortified station of the Baltic fleet. It has two harbours, one for warships, another for mercantile vessels, and has a valuable trade. It was founded by Peter the Great as a protection for his new capital.

**12. Moscow.**—The old capital of Russia was **MOSCOW** (pop. 753,469) on the river **Moskva**. It lies in a fertile, undulating plain, with low hills in the neighbourhood, and takes in an immense area, only parts of which are occupied by buildings. On the left bank of the **Moskva**, near the point where it is joined by the **Neglina**, rises a wide elevation called the **Kremlin**. This elevation forms the centre of the city. The **Kremlin** is surrounded by high walls, with towers and gates, and within these are many fine buildings, including several great churches, the old palace of the Czars, and the lofty octagonal tower of **Ivan Veliki**, with the largest bell in the world. Around the **Kremlin**, on the same side of the river, are two great lines of boulevards, and the entire city is enclosed by a rampart having a circumference of 26 miles. From the Sparrow Hills there is a striking view of Moscow, which, with its many gilded and variously coloured domes, never fails to produce a strong impression on visitors from the West, to whom it seems like the beginning of the oriental world. Moscow has a university and several important scientific institutions. It has great woollen, linen, and silk manufactures, and produces, among other things, porcelain, leather, paper, and jewellery. It has also bell-foundries and copper-works, with many distilleries and breweries. Its trade extends to all parts of the empire, and brings it

into relation with many cities in Asia and western Europe.

**13. Towns in Great Russia.**—Moscow lies near the middle of *Great Russia*. Among other towns in this region is TULA (pop. 63,928), on the Upa, with great establishments for the making of weapons. It is also famous for its steel wares, and for tea-kettles



FIG. 82.—THE KREMLIN, MOSCOW.

called samovars. SMOLENSK (pop. 34,348) is one of the oldest of Russian towns, and was a great centre of commerce in the middle ages. It still has some manufactures, and a trade in horses and agricultural products. It is picturesquely situated on the Dnieper, and has strong walls, and old churches. NOVGOROD—that is, New Town—at the point where the Volkov escapes from Lake Ilmen, is interesting as the city in which Rurik laid the foundations of the Russian empire, and which, when the rest of

Russia was subject to the Tartars, not only maintained its freedom but became one of the most flourishing of the Hanseatic towns. It has never recovered from the penalties inflicted on it by Ivan the Terrible for having sided against him with the Poles, and the last remnants of its greatness were destroyed by the rise of St. Petersburg. It has an ancient cathedral. VLADIMIR, on the Oka, in a fertile district, was formerly the capital of a Grand Duchy, and some fine churches have survived from the time of its prosperity. It is a centre of the cotton industry. NIJNI Novgorod—that is Lower Novgorod—(pop. 66,716) lies at the point where the Volga receives the Oka. It is celebrated for its Fair, which is held from July 15th to August 21st. To this come traders from every part of the world, but especially from Asia, whence vast caravans bring specimens of all the treasures of the East. In the far north, at the mouth of the northern Dvina, is ARCHANGEL, so called in honour of the Archangel Michael. A trading station existed near its site as early as the tenth century, but it became important only after the English, in the sixteenth century, found their way to it by sea. For a long time it was the only port in Russia, and it became the centre of a valuable trade with English, Dutch, and German merchants. It has still a considerable traffic in flax and timber. In the Solovetzki islands, near Archangel, there is a settlement of monks.

14. **Little Russia.**—In *Little Russia* the chief town is KIEF (pop. 170,216), on the Dnieper. It is intimately connected with the early history of Russia, and there are many antiquities in the neighbourhood. Its university makes it an important centre of intellectual life in southern Russia. There is also a university at KHARKOF (pop. 171,416), a great trading town on the Donetz. BATURIN was formerly the residence of the Hetman of the Don Cossacks, and near POLTAVA, in 1709, the Russians gained a victory over Charles XII, which made it possible for Russia to take the place of Sweden on the eastern shores of the Baltic.

15. **South Russia.**—*South Russia* is made important by the fact that in the Black Sea there are many outlets

for commerce. Among its towns is KISHINEF (pop. 120,074), the capital of Bessarabia, and a centre of trade. It lies on the Byk, an affluent of the Dniester, and is inhabited by people belonging to many nationalities, of whom the Jews are the most numerous. On the shore of a small gulf of the Black Sea, not far from the mouths of several rivers, is ODESSA (pop. 270,643), a city founded by Catharine II in 1794. It is the chief port for grain, flax, timber, and other commodities exported from Southern Russia, Little Russia, and Poland. Among its inhabitants are representatives of almost every nation in the world, and Italian is the language chiefly used in commercial transactions. NIKOLAEFF (pop. 67,249), at the mouth of the Bug, is the station of the Black Sea fleet, and KHERSON (pop. 61,346), near the mouths of the Dnieper, has a valuable export trade. TAGANROG (pop. 56,047), near the delta of the Don, on the shore of the Sea of Azof, is also a trading town. Among the towns of the *Crimea* is SEBASTOPOL, famous in the history of England and France, as well as in that of Russia. The inland town BAKTCHISARAI was the residence of the Khans of the Crimean Tartars, and has their palace and many mosques. On the site of KERTCH was an ancient Greek city, and numerous Greek antiquities have been found in the neighbourhood. The picturesque southern shore of the Crimea, with the Yaila hills in the background, presents a strong contrast to the steppes of the northern part of the peninsula. It is covered with olive groves and vineyards, and many pleasant dwellings have been built on it by Russian nobles.

**16. West Russia.**—The chief town in *West Russia* is VILNA (pop. 102,845), in the district inhabited principally by Lithuanians. It is picturesquely situated on the Vilia, and has an important trade in grain and timber. It was formerly the residence of the Grand Dukes of Lithuania, and has a cathedral and other fine buildings erected in the days when it was relatively more important than it is now. Many of its inhabitants are Jews. GRODNO (pop. 39,826), at the point where the Niemen begins to be navigable by large vessels, is also an important trading town, and has

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great markets. SMORGONIJ, a small town, is the chief place where dancing bears are trained, and is often called "the bear-academy." PINSK, on the Pripet, lies at the south-western end of a great marsh, and is famous for its manufacture of Russian leather. MOHILEF (pop. 41,889), on the Dnieper, produces great quantities of orchard fruit, and has a valuable transit trade between the Baltic and Odessa. BERDITCHEF (pop. 77,223) has markets for grain, cattle, leather, wax, and honey, and is inhabited chiefly by Jews.

17. **Polish Towns.**—The capital of Poland is WARSAW (pop. 436,572), to which the seat of the Polish Government was transferred from Cracow in 1587, when Warsaw lay very near the centre of the Polish kingdom. It is an ancient town, and was surrounded by walls in 1339. It is built chiefly on rising ground on the left bank of the Vistula, and is connected by a bridge with its suburb Praga on the right bank. Like Moscow, Warsaw takes in a wide area, many parts of which are cultivated as gardens. In some districts the streets are broad and handsome, but for the most part they are narrow. On a height in the northern part of the town rises what was formerly the royal palace. Among other buildings are the Saxon palace, with magnificent public gardens, and a beautiful Gothic cathedral of the thirteenth century. The university was dissolved after an insurrection in 1830, but re-established in 1864. Warsaw is the industrial and trading centre of Poland, and produces, among other things, woollen and silk fabrics, carpets, and steel wares. It has an important woollen market, and much traffic passes down the Vistula to Danzig.

Among the other towns of Poland is LODZ (pop. 113,413), sometimes called the Polish Manchester. It has great cotton and linen manufactures, which are carried on chiefly by Germans. KALICZ, on the Prosna, near the Prussian frontier, is one of the oldest towns in Poland, and has a trade in cloth and leather. Near SLUPIANOVA is the **Kreuzberg**, famous for its Benedictine monastery, to which many pilgrimages are made. LUBLIN (pop. 40,120)

lies in a fertile district at the foot of a castle-crowned hill to the east of the Vistula, and has important markets for grain and wine. Its population, like that of most Polish towns, consists to a large extent of Jews.

**18. The Baltic Provinces.**—The *Baltic Provinces* include *Ingermanland*, in which is St. Petersburg. The other provinces are *Esthland*, *Livland*, and *Courland*. These districts were won for Christianity and civilisation by the Teutonic Brothers of the Sword, and are often called the German provinces of Russia; but in Esthland the majority of the population are of Finnish origin, and Livland and Courland are occupied chiefly by Letts. The great landowners, however, and most of the inhabitants of the towns, are Germans. The chief town in *Esthland* is REVEL (pop. 35,810), with a valuable coasting trade. It is also a naval station. In *Livland* is RIGA (pop. 175,332), at the mouth of the western Dvina. It lies in a depression, but behind it are sand hills, on which are many dwellings commanding pleasant views of the town and of the Gulf of Riga. Riga was a leading member of the Hansa, and resembles the old Hanseatic cities of the western part of the Baltic. Among its many fine buildings are the cathedral, St. Peter's church, with the highest spire in Russia, the town-hall, and a castle of the sixteenth century, now occupied by the governor. Riga is the second trading port of the empire, and exports grain, flax, hemp, timber, and tallow. It has also numerous shipbuilding yards, and many manufactures. DORPAT (pop. 30,643) lies in a hilly, picturesque district near Lake Peipus. It has an excellent university, attended principally by the Germans of Russia. The chief town in *Courland* is MITTAU (pop. 30,039), on the Aa, formerly the residence of the Dukes of Courland.

**19. Finland.**—The capital of *Finland* is HELSINGFORS (pop. 51,018), beautifully situated on a rocky peninsula, with a good harbour. It is protected by the strong fortress and naval station Sveaborg, which is built on skerries in the Gulf of Finland, connected with one another by bridges. Helsingfors is a watering-place, with a considerable trade in grain, fish, deals, and iron. Besides its university, it

has a wellknown academy for women. The old capital ABO, at the entrance to the Gulf of Bothnia, is a trading town, with some manufactures. VIBORG, near Lake Ladoga, has an arsenal and a trade in timber.

**20. Kazan and Astrakhan.**—The governments of the eastern and south-eastern parts of Russia are grouped in what were formerly the khanates of *Kazan* and *Astrakhan*. The chief town in *Kazan* is KAZAN (pop. 140,726), the centre for the trade which passes from Moscow through Ekaterinburg, on the eastern slope of the Urals, to Siberia. At its university are chairs for instruction in the Armenian, Arabic, Persian, Chinese, and Mongolian languages, all of which are used by the traders of eastern Russia. About a fourth of the population are Mohammedans. PERM (pop. 32,909), on the Kama, has great iron and copper works ; and it is the principal town from which the mineral products of the Urals are distributed.

In the former khanate of *Astrakhan* are SARATOF (pop. 122,829) and SAMARA (pop. 75,478), both on the Volga. They are manufacturing towns, and important stations for the trade sent from Moscow through Orenburg to central Asia. ORENBURG (pop. 56,371), on the river Ural, south-west of the Ural mountains, is a strongly fortified town, and a great meeting-place of caravans passing between Europe and Asia. ASTRAKHAN (pop. 71,815), at the mouth of the Volga, is the station of the Caspian fleet, and the centre of trade between Russia and Persia. It has woollen and silk manufactures, and in the neighbourhood there are numerous vineyards and gardens for southern fruits. Its fisheries are also a valuable source of wealth. Many races, each with its own creed, language, and customs, are represented in its population.

## CHAPTER XIV

### THE BALKAN PENINSULA

1. **Mountains.**—We began this survey of the European continent with a description of Greece, and end it with an account of the remaining part of the Balkan peninsula.

This peninsula lies between the Black Sea and the Adriatic, and its southern shores are washed by the Mediterranean. It consists chiefly of high ground, including various ranges of mountains which are only in part connected with one another. The range from which the peninsula takes its name—that of the **Balkans** (derived from a Turkish word meaning “the wooded mountains”—rises from the right bank of the Timok, and curves round in a direction generally parallel with the Danube, ending at the coast of the Black Sea. The central part of the range consists of crystalline rocks, and presents a steep front towards the south, but slopes gradually in the north towards the plain of the Danube. It is crossed by various Passes, of which the Shipka Pass, near the middle of the range, is the most famous. West of this pass are the Koja Balkans, which reach a height of 7790 feet. These are the highest parts of the Balkan mountains.

Another range, to some extent parallel with the Balkans, and connected with them, rises at the Iron Gate of the Danube, opposite the Transylvanian mountains, and crosses the peninsula to the *Ægean*. It advances towards the south along the left bank of the Timok, beyond which it is interrupted by various river-valleys. South-west of the Koja Balkans, the range attains an elevation of 8960 feet

in Rilo Dagh, a group of mountains consisting of gneiss and granite, with wild, jagged summits. From the Rilo Dagh stretch towards the south-east the Perim Dagh and the Despoto Dagh or Monks' Mountains, called also the Rhodope mountains. In these granite chains there are several peaks above 7000 feet, and their hills in some cases reach close to the Aegean Sea. They are separated by the valley of the Maritza from various low ranges which advance from the Balkans towards the Black Sea, and proceed along the northern shore of the Sea of Marmora into the peninsula of Gallipoli. South-west of the Perim Dagh, between the Gulfs of Contessa and Salonica, is the high peninsula of Chalcidice, ending in three narrow arms parted from one another by the Gulfs of Monte Santo and Cassandra. The easternmost of these subordinate peninsulas has in some parts lofty cliffs, rising sheer out of the Aegean. Through it Xerxes caused a canal to be cut for his ships, which could not safely encounter the storms around its southern promontory. On this promontory is Mount Athos (6350 feet), called also the Holy Mount, because of the many Greek monasteries on its slopes.

The mountains of the western part of the Balkan peninsula begin in the north-west with the Dinaric Alps, which, as we have seen, advance in a south-easterly direction through Dalmatia. Parallel chains occupy Croatia, Bosnia, the western part of Servia, and Montenegro. All these chains consist of limestone. At the Adriatic coast they break off abruptly, and have bare summits, but in the interior their slopes are in many places covered with oak forests, and there are numerous fertile valleys. The range culminates in Montenegro, where Mounts Dormitor and Kom, an outlying height of the group called the Black Mountains, reach an elevation, the former of 8150 feet, the latter of 7920 feet.

South-east of Mount Kom rises the massive group of Shar Dagh, which is separated from the mountains of Montenegro by the valley of the White Drin, and from the eastern mountains by the valley of the Vardar. This group reaches an elevation of 10,010 feet, the loftiest point of the peninsula. South of it there is an extensive region

of high, broken ground, consisting in part of table-lands, in part of ranges of mountains. These have a general south-easterly direction, and in Albania descend through terraces to the lowlands which border a part of the Adriatic shore. Farther south is the Pindus range, east of which Mount Olympus arises on the *Ægean* coast, while in the west the mountains form the rocky coast of the Strait of Otranto. The Pindus range is continued in the south-east, as already noted, by groups of mountains, among which are Parnassus and Helicon.

**2. Rivers.**—Between the Balkan range and the Transylvanian mountains there is a wide valley, which, in the north-east, joins the great plain of Russia. Through this valley the lower *Danube* flows to the Black Sea, which it enters through three mouths, the St. George Mouth, the Sulina, and the Kilia Mouth. From the Balkans the Danube receives many tributaries, the chief of which are the *Iskar* and the *Timok*. From the western mountains flows the *Morava*, with its affluents the *Nisava*, the *Toplitz*, and the *Ibar*, forming valleys by which communication can be maintained between the Danube and the *Ægean*. Farther west the *Save* receives the *Drina* and the *Bosna*.

Of the rivers falling into the Adriatic the chief is the *Drin*, formed by the union of the *Black Drin* and the *White Drin*. The *Black Drin* flows from Lake Ochrida, which lies on a plateau 2300 feet above the level of the sea. The other rivers in this part of the peninsula are short and rapid.

The most important river flowing into the *Ægean* is the *Maritza*, which waters a great and fertile valley. It rises between the Balkan and the Rhodope mountains, and receives on the left bank the *Tandja*, on the right the *Arda*. West of the Maritza the chief river is the *Vardar*, flowing from the Shar Dagh to the Gulf of Salonica.

**3. Climate.**—The climate varies partly in accordance with the latitude, partly in accordance with the height of the surface. The northern plain, exposed to the full force of the winds of the steppes, is bitterly cold in winter, and there is a corresponding degree of heat during

a portion of summer. In those parts of the south which are sheltered by the mountains, and where the influence of the Mediterranean is felt, the contrast between the two seasons is much less violent. The moisture given off by the Black Sea and the Adriatic is condensed by the cold air of the mountains, so that there is an abundant fall of rain and snow. The vegetation of the Aegean coast includes the myrtle, the olive, the orange, and the mulberry, and corresponds generally to that of the coasts of the western Mediterranean. Dense forests, in which there are wolves and bears, cover many of the slopes of the Balkans.

**4. History.**—The Balkan peninsula formed a part of the Roman Empire, which for some time extended far to the north of the Danube, where the province of *Dacia* reached eastward from the Theiss to the Black Sea. South of the Danube, the Balkan range separated *Moesia* in the north from *Thrace* in the south; and the western part of the peninsula was divided between *Illyricum* in the north-west and *Macedonia* in the south-east. The chief city was Byzantium or Constantinople—called also New Rome—which, after the final parting of the Eastern and Western Empires, became the capital of the Eastern or Byzantine Empire.

From the seventh century groups of Slavonic tribes, or tribes speaking Slavonic languages, broke into the peninsula, and founded kingdoms, the chief of which were Dalmatia, Croatia, Slavonia, and Servia. Dalmatia became subject to Venice, Croatia and Slavonia to the Magyars, who from the beginning of the tenth century separated the southern Slavs from their northern kinsfolk. Servia, although for a long time nominally owing allegiance to the Eastern Emperors, retained its independence. To the east of Servia were the **Bulgarians**, a people belonging to the Finnish branch of the Mongolian race. They crossed the Danube in the seventh century, and settled chiefly in the district between that river and the Balkans. They adopted a Slavonic language, and became to some extent a Slavonic people; and, like all the southern and eastern Slavs, they received Christianity in the form in which it was presented by the Eastern or Greek Church. Bulgaria

and Servia had widely different boundaries at different times, and were often at war with one another and with the Eastern Emperors. North of the Danube, between the Transylvanian mountains and the Black Sea, the principality of *Wallachia* was formed in the thirteenth century, and that of *Moldavia* in the fourteenth, by Rouman settlers, who migrated thither from the lands to the south of the Danube. The Roumans were neither Slavs nor Bulgarians, but descendants of the old Roman population of the peninsula ; and their speech, like Italian, French, Spanish, and Roumansch, has sprung directly from Latin. They were called Vlachs by the Slavs, as the Kelts were called Welsh by the English.

In 1354 the Ottoman Turks, who had already formed a wide dominion in western Asia, entered Europe ; and they were soon the masters of a territory reaching from the Ægean to the Danube. Their power was temporarily broken by Timour or Tamerlane in 1402, but they rallied, and in 1453 brought the Eastern Empire to an end by the conquest of Constantinople. After this the Turks formed a vast state, which, when at its full extent, included, besides enormous territories in western Asia and northern Africa, nearly the whole of the Balkan Peninsula, and the greater part of Hungary.

Partly because of their Mohammedanism, the Turks have always held aloof from the people they have subdued, exercising to the utmost the supposed rights of conquerors. Hence they have never won the confidence or respect of their subjects in Europe ; and at the earliest possible opportunity their yoke has been thrown off. Hungary was liberated towards the end of the seventeenth century ; and during the present century one territory after another has been withdrawn from Ottoman rule, partly by the efforts of the people themselves, partly through the help they have received from foreign powers, and especially from Russia. *Greece* became an independent kingdom in 1829, and *Servia* and *Roumania* are now also independent kingdoms. *Bulgaria* and *Eastern Roumelia* are practically independent, and *Bosnia* and *Herzegovina*, although nominally included in

the Ottoman Empire, have become in reality a part of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy.

### 1. *Roumania.*

**5. Roumania.**—ROUMANIA consists of the united principalities of *Wallachia* and *Moldavia*. Turkey never completely subdued these principalities, but she exacted tribute from them, and usurped the right of appointing their rulers. By the Treaty of Paris, in 1856, they were placed under the protection of the Great Powers, and in 1861 both elected the same prince, and joined to form one principality. The new principality had to pay tribute to the Turks, but in 1877 it proclaimed its independence, and this was confirmed by the Treaty of Berlin in 1878; and in 1881 Roumania declared itself a kingdom.

Roumania is for the most part a plain, with the wooded mountains of Transylvania on its western border. East of the Danube it takes in the Dobruja, a plateau joined to it in 1878 in exchange for the part of *Bessarabia* which had been taken from Russia after the Crimean War. This plateau is crossed by a double rampart made by the Emperor Trajan, and includes a good many fertile tracts between swamps and moorlands.

The country is watered by the *Danube* and by many tributaries descending to it from the Transylvanian mountains and the Carpathians. Among these tributaries are the *Pruth*, the *Sereth*, and the *Aluta*. The navigation of the mouths of the Danube is controlled by a commission of the European powers, appointed in accordance with provisions laid down in the Treaty of Paris in 1856, and the Treaty of Berlin in 1878. The dues received from vessels are spent in the maintenance of the channels in a proper condition for commerce.

Roumania is estimated to have an area of 48,307 square miles, and a population of 5,500,000, including, besides other foreigners, 300,000 Jews and 200,000 gypsies. The Roumanians are a black-haired people, vigorous, and naturally clever, but indolent, and with the tendency to suspicion which necessarily springs from cen-

turies of misgovernment. Almost all of them belong to the Orthodox Greek Church. The mass of the people are wholly uneducated, so far as schools are concerned.

The form of government was settled by an assembly elected in 1866. There is a Parliament, consisting of two houses, the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies, both chosen by the people, the former for eight years, the latter for four. The king appoints ministers, who are responsible to Parliament. Roumania has a comparatively powerful army, in which every one is obliged to serve, and she has a small navy manned by 1200 sailors.

Almost the only industries are agriculture and the rearing of cattle. The "great boyars," or higher class of nobles, possess immense estates, but there are many peasant proprietors. The land is wretchedly cultivated, but it is so fertile that, after the wants of the people are supplied, there is something over for export. The chief crops are maize, barley, rye, and wheat. Oil-seeds, vines, and fruits are also cultivated. In exchange for its natural products Roumania receives from Great Britain and other countries such things as cotton and woollen fabrics, metals, leather, glass, and coal.

Wallachia is divided into eighteen, Moldavia into thirteen districts, each of which has a prefect or governor. The capital is Bucharest (pop. 221,805) on the Dumbovitza. An important trade passes through it between Hungary and Turkey, and its university makes it an intellectual centre for the well-off classes. It takes in a great area, much of which consists of gardens. The streets are narrow and ill-kept, with a strange mixture of palaces and hovels. JASSY (pop. 90,125) lies on the slope of a hill rising from the left bank of the Baklui. It is the capital of Moldavia and has many churches and fine houses; but the majority of the dwellings are wooden huts. Among the chief trading towns are BOTOCHANI and PLOËSTI; and GALATZ (pop. 80,763), and BRAÏLA (pop. 28,272) are the principal ports on the Danube. GALATZ is the seat of the Danube Commission.

## 2. *Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia.*

**6. Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia.**—BULGARIA takes in the land which slopes from the ridge of the Balkans to the Danube. After the war between Russia and Turkey in 1877-78 it was made a principality. It was to pay tribute to Turkey, but received the right of choosing its own prince, subject to the approval of the Turkish government and the Great Powers.

EASTERN ROUMELIA, about two-thirds of whose inhabitants are Bulgarians, lies to the south of the Balkans, between the northern part of the Rhodope mountains and the Black Sea, and takes in the basin of the upper Maritza. By the Treaty of Berlin it was arranged that the people of this country should be allowed to manage their own affairs, and should have a Christian governor-general ; but they were to continue subject to the Sultan, by whom the governor-general was to be appointed. In 1885 they deposed the governor-general, and proclaimed the union of their land with Bulgaria. Since that time Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia have been ruled by one prince, and they are represented in the same national assembly. This assembly, which is elected by the people, makes the laws ; and to it the ministers appointed by the prince are responsible.

The army, in time of war, would number about 100,000 men, and all citizens have to undergo military training. There is a small navy, manned by 334 sailors.

The entire principality has an area of 37,864 square miles, and a population of 2,982,949, including 607,319 Turks, 58,338 Greeks, 50,291 gypsies, and 23,546 Jews. The original Bulgarians, as already stated, were Finns, but the present population are of mixed origin, and speak a Slavonic language. They are a sturdy, brave, and industrious people, well able to govern themselves, and endowed with a remarkable capacity for various kinds of artistic craftsmanship, especially in the working of metals. Most of them belong to the Orthodox Greek Church ; but the Turks settled in the principality, with a small number

of the native population, are Mohammedans, and there are some Roman Catholics. Efforts have been made to create a good system of popular education, but more than two-thirds of the army can neither read nor write.

In both parts of the principality there is much fertile soil, with many forests on the Balkans and ample pasturage for sheep and cattle. Most of the people are engaged in agriculture; but the mining of coal and iron is carried on to a small extent, and there are manufactures in the more important towns. Corn and wool are the chief exports, and the principal imports are textile fabrics, iron, and coal.

Bulgaria is divided into seventeen districts, Eastern Roumelia into six. The capital of the entire principality is *Sofia* (pop. 30,428), in Bulgaria. It lies in the valley of the Iskar, at the foot of Mount Vitosh, from the top of which there is a splendid view of the Balkans. *TIRNOVA* (pop. 11,314), built on heights in the valley of the Jantra, was the old capital of Bulgaria, and is the centre for much of its inland trade. *PLEVNA* (pop. 14,307) is famous for the skill and valour with which it was held by the Turks against the Russians in 1877. *SHUMLA* (pop. 23,161) is important not only as an industrial and trading town, but as the chief strategic station between the Danube, the Balkans, and the Black Sea. Among the trading towns of the Danube are *WIDDIN* (pop. 14,772), which has many artificers skilled in the working of silver; *SISTOVA* (pop. 12,482); *RUSTCHUK* (pop. 27,198), with manufactures; and *SILISTRIA* (pop. 11,414), which has often been a fortified station of great prominence in wars between Russia and Turkey. *VARNA* (pop. 25,256) is the chief outlet for Bulgarian trade in the Black Sea.

Eastern Roumelia, often called Southern Bulgaria since its union with the northern principality, is a remarkably picturesque region, with a fine climate. Its chief town is *PHILIPPOPOLIS* (pop. 33,442), on the Maritza, which from this point is navigable for boats. The city was founded by Philip, the father of Alexander the Great. It lies in a charming part of the valley of the Maritza, and rice, the vine, the olive, and the cotton plant grow in the surround-

ing country. Farther up the river is TATAR-BAZARJIK (pop. 15,659), from which a road across the Balkans, over the Pass of the Iron Gate, leads to Sofia. Under the steep southern slope of the Balkans there are several valleys devoted chiefly to the cultivation of roses ; and at SLIVNO (pop. 20,893) and KAZANLIK many workers are engaged in the manufacture of attar of roses. The centre for the Black Sea trade of Eastern Roumelia is BURGAS.

### 3. *Servia.*

7. **Servia.**—SERVIA lies between the **Balkans** and the lower **Drina**, and takes in the whole of the basin of the **Morava**. It is a mountainous country, with many great oak forests. It includes only a part of the old independent kingdom of Servia. The people rebelled against Turkey in 1815, and in 1829 they secured the right of self-government, but had still to pay tribute to the Sultan. In 1877 they proclaimed their independence, which was confirmed by the Treaty of Berlin. Afterwards their prince assumed the title of a king. A National Assembly, selected by the people, shares legislative power with the king, or with regents representing him during his minority ; and to it the ministers appointed by the crown are responsible. There is also a State Council or Senate, by which projects of law are prepared. It consists of sixteen members, eight of whom are chosen by the king, eight by the National Assembly. Military service is obligatory, and the various classes into which the army is divided number 210,000 men.

Servia has an area of 18,750 square miles, and an estimated population of 2,013,690. West of the Morava the people are almost wholly of Servian origin ; east of it they are mixed with Bulgarians and Roumanians. Nearly the entire population belongs to the Orthodox Greek Church, the head of which in Servia is the Archbishop of Belgrade. Elementary schools are provided at the cost of the Government and the municipalities, and attendance is compulsory.

There are hardly any manufactures in Servia. The

country is believed to be rich in coal, iron, silver, and other minerals, but mining industries have not yet been developed. The wealth of the people consists chiefly of great herds of pigs, which feed on acorns in the forests, and of cattle, sheep, and goats. Agriculture is in a backward state, but the soil of the valleys is so fertile that a considerable quantity of wheat can be exported. Other exports are pigs, fruit, and hides ; and among the imports are cotton and other fabrics, sugar, salt, and iron manufactures.

The capital is **Belgrade** (pop. 42,000). It is picturesquely situated partly on the slopes, partly at the foot, of a strongly fortified height, rising within the angle at the junction of the Save with the Danube. The northern part of the city, formerly inhabited by Turks, consists of narrow streets, and has many mosques, but the rest of Belgrade resembles ordinary modern towns of the West. It has a university and other educational institutions, and is commercially important as a centre for traffic between Vienna and Buda-Pesth on the one hand, and Constantinople and Salonica on the other. The only other considerable towns are **NISH** (pop. 19,500), on the highway between Belgrade and Constantinople ; and **LESCOVATZ**, a trading town on the Morava.

#### 4. *Bosnia and Herzegovina.*

**8. Bosnia and Herzegovina.**—*Bosnia*, during the middle ages, was subject sometimes to Hungary, sometimes to Servia. In the fourteenth century it became an independent kingdom, and seemed likely to play a great part in the Balkan peninsula ; but its career was cut short by the Turks, who conquered it between 1449 and 1463. The district now called *Herzegovina* was called, in the days of Venetian supremacy on the Adriatic, the Duchy of St. Saba. In 1440 a Bosnian vassal, who made himself duke, did homage to the ruler of Austria, and thus the land came to be known as a “*Herzogthum*,” the German word for a duchy ; and this word partly survives in the present name. *Herzegovina* was

subdued by the Turks in 1483 ; and the two districts, with a district in the north-west, annexed from Croatia, were united in one province. The mass of the people remained true to their faith and national customs ; but most of the great landowners became Mohammedans, and were allowed to retain their possessions. The peasantry, cruelly oppressed, were often goaded into insurrection ; and from 1874 to 1876 they made one more attempt to set themselves free. By the Treaty of Berlin, Bosnia and Herzegovina, while remaining nominally connected with Turkey, were transferred to Austria-Hungary, by which they have since been governed. *Novi-Bazar*, a district in the south-east, is also occupied by Austria.

The country has an area of 23,570 square miles, and a population of 1,504,091. The people speak a Slavonic language, and are tall and vigorous, with an ardent love of freedom. The peasantry belong chiefly to the Orthodox Greek Church, but the great landowners and many of the inhabitants of the towns are Mohammedans, and there are a good many Roman Catholics. Popular education, formerly utterly neglected, has improved under Austrian rule.

Bosnia and Herzegovina are to a large extent covered with ranges of mountains parallel with the Dinaric Alps. Like Servia, they have great forests of oak and fertile valleys, which produce large quantities of grain and fruit. The rivers by which these valleys are watered flow in Bosnia to the Danube, in Herzegovina to the Adriatic. The country has valuable mineral resources, but little use has been made of them, nor have manufactures been much developed. The people live chiefly by agriculture, by the rearing of pigs, sheep, and goats, and by fisheries.

The capital of Bosnia is SERAJEVO or BOSNA-SERAI (pop. 21,400), on the Bosna. It was formerly a large town, and has many mosques, and Greek and Roman Catholic churches. The meeting-point of several highways, it is the most important centre of Bosnian trade. BANJALUKA, built on a height above the Verbas, sends down traffic to the Save ; and SVORNIK, on the Drina, opposite Servian territory, deals in timber. NOVIBAZAR, in the south-east, is

important chiefly as a military station. Of the towns of Herzegovina, the chief is MOSTAR (pop. 10,900). It is built on the Narenta, the principal river of Herzegovina, and has a fine Roman bridge.

### 5. Montenegro.

**9. Montenegro.**—MONTENEGRO is a small principality to the south of Bosnia. The name by which it is generally known it received from the Venetians; it is called by the people themselves CZERNAGORA. The greater part of it consists of bare, high ridges, from which rise lofty peaks, including those already named, Dormitor and Kom. The Rjeka, the Zeta, and the Moratcha are short and rapid rivers, discharging their waters into the picturesque lake of Scutari, which, at its south-eastern end, has an outlet in the Bojana. Agriculture can be carried on only in the river-valleys, through which pass the principal highways between different parts of the land.

With the exception of towns and districts held by Venice, Montenegro is the only part of the Balkan peninsula which, although often attacked by the Turks, has never been subject to them. During the middle ages the district formed a part of Servia. After the conquest of Servia by the Turks an independent principality was formed, first with Scutari, then with Zabliak, for its capital. Towards the end of the fifteenth century Zabliak was abandoned, and the people withdrew to the mountains, building Cetinje as a new centre for their national life.

In 1516 the last member of the reigning house resigned his authority to the metropolitan bishop, and afterwards, until recent times, Montenegro was always governed by its bishop, who bore the title of Vladika. From 1697 this position was held by a member of the family of Petrovic Njegos, who was specially honoured for his resistance to Turkey. In 1851 Danilo I gave up the title of Vladika, and took that of hospodar or prince, severing the secular from the spiritual authority. Nominally, the power of the prince is limited by a State Council of eight members, four of whom are appointed by himself, while

four are elected by the people ; but practically he is an absolute ruler.

By the Treaty of Berlin it was arranged that Montenegro should receive additional territory, including the town and district of Dulcigno, and the sultan undertook to act on this decision. In 1880 he was forced by the Great Powers to keep his word.

Montenegro is estimated to have an area of 3630 square miles, and a population of 236,000. In Antivari and Dulcigno there are Mohammedan Albanians, but elsewhere the people are chiefly of the Servian stock, and belong for the most part to the Orthodox Greek Church. Schools are maintained by the state, and the law is that they shall be attended by all children. The Montenegrins are a hardy, warlike people, and the entire male population is trained to military service. The productive land is not well tilled, and the people depend chiefly on their cattle, sheep, and goats.

The capital, *Cetinje* (pop. 1500), is inhabited principally by Government officials and persons in some way dependent on the court. It lies in a valley surrounded by rocky heights. *Podgoritza*, on the Zeta, a place with 6000 inhabitants, is the largest town in the principality. The ports of Montenegro are *DULCIGNO* (pop. 5000) and *ANTIVARI*.

## 6. *Turkey.*

**10. Turkey.**—Although shorn of so many lands, Turkey, so far as extent is concerned, is still a great empire ; but its power depends rather on its Asiatic than on its European dominions. In Europe it takes in, besides various islands, the territory stretching from the Black Sea to the Strait of Otranto, and bordered in the south by the Sea of Marmora, the *Ægean* Sea, and the Greek frontier ; in the north by Eastern Roumelia, Bulgaria, Servia, Bosnia, and Montenegro. Its claims in Eastern Roumelia, Bulgaria, Bosnia, and Herzegovina are without real importance.

The head of the state in Turkey is the Sultan, who claims to represent the Prophet as well as to be the secular

ruler of his people. His will is supreme, but he is bound to rule in accordance with the principles of the Koran. Under him are the two great officers, the Grand Vizier and the Sheik-ul-islam, both of whom he appoints. The Sheik-ul-islam is the head of the Ulemas—that is, the theologians, judges, and jurists who are learned in the law. The Grand Vizier is the chief secular minister, and presides over the State Council, which consists of ministers responsible for the management of foreign affairs, home affairs, the army, the navy, and other great departments.

The army consists of the Nizam or regular army, and two other classes corresponding to the landwehr and the landsturm of the German army; and it is supposed that in case of war the Government would have at its disposal at least 800,000 men. Only Mohammedans are allowed to become soldiers; upon all others a tax is imposed in lieu of military service. The navy is nominally manned by 30,000 sailors, and has 9460 marines.

11. Turkey in Europe has an area of 63,850 square miles, and a population of 4,790,000. In this number are included Greeks, Slavs, Albanians, and Roumanians. There are also a good many Armenians, Jews, and Gypsies. The Turks themselves form only a small proportion of the whole. They are Mohammedans, and hold strictly by the religion handed down to them by their forefathers. The Christian inhabitants of European Turkey are for the most part members of the Orthodox Greek Church. This Church in Turkey is ruled by the Patriarch of Constantinople, who claims to be the head of the entire Eastern Church. A comparatively small minority consists of Roman Catholics, and of united Armenians and united Greeks, both of whom recognise the supremacy of the Pope.

Turkey has splendid material resources, but the absence of adequate means of communication and the insecurity due to the defects of Turkish methods of government have prevented them from being properly developed. The soil is in many parts so good that great cereal crops are produced at the cost of little labour. The cotton plant, the olive, and the vine are cultivated in numerous southern districts, and tobacco is also to some extent grown. Horses,

cattle, sheep, and goats are reared, and Turkish wool is of the finest quality. Iron, copper, and other minerals abound, but there are no important mines. Turkish carpets are the most famous and the best of the manufactured products of Turkey. Silk fabrics are also made, and the spinning and weaving of wool are common domestic industries. Turkey carries on an important trade with England, Austria, France, Russia, and other countries. Among her principal exports are raisins, raw silk, wool, wheat, and olive oil ; and she imports, among other things, sugar, cotton and linen fabrics, and iron.

**12. Divisions—Constantinople.**—The Turkish Empire is divided into *vilayets*, each under a vali or governor-general ; and in European Turkey there are seven of such divisions. These, however, are less important than the old historic divisions, which depend mainly on the natural features of the land. Thrace originally took in the whole of the district between the Balkans, the Rhodope mountains, and the *Ægean* ; but now the name is applied only to the southern part of this region. West of it, between the Rhodope mountains, the *Ægean*, and the range advancing southward from the Shar Dagh, is Macedonia. Albania includes the country between Macedonia and the Adriatic. South of Albania, between the Pindus and the Ionian Sea, is Epirus.

In *Thrace* is Constantinople, called by the Turks *Stamboul* (pop. 873,565), the capital of the empire, and one of the most illustrious of European cities. On a part of its site was the ancient *Byzantium*, built by Greek colonists in the seventh century B.C. In 328 A.D., and during the following years, the Emperor Constantine rebuilt and extended *Byzantium*. He called it New Rome, but from the people it received the name of Constantinople, or Constantine's city. For some time it was merely the residence of the ruler of one division of the Roman Empire, but afterwards, as already noted, it became the capital of the separate Eastern or Byzantine Empire ; and for centuries it did magnificent service to Europe by guarding it from the incursions of Asiatic hordes. A finer position for a city does not exist in the

world. At the entrance to the Bosphorus, on the European side, an arm of the sea, called the **Golden Horn**, advances about five miles into the land. This inlet is narrow, but deep enough to float the largest vessels. On the hilly peninsula lying between the Golden Horn, the Sea of Marmora, and the Bosphorus, stands the oldest part of Constantinople, that which represents the original city of Constantine. On the opposite shore of the Golden Horn, with which the peninsula is connected by bridges



FIG. 33.—CONSTANTINOPLE.

of boats, are the suburbs Galata, Tophana, and Pera. In Galata, which is occupied chiefly by a non-Mohammedan population, are the residences of the foreign ambassadors. Past these suburbs villages and palaces line the exquisitely beautiful shores of the Bosphorus. Seen from the sea, and especially from the Golden Horn, Constantinople, with its towers, domes, and minarets, produces an impression of matchless splendour ; but the interior of the city by no means corresponds to its outward appearance, many streets being narrow and squalid, with ill-made houses of wood and clay. At the point of the peninsula, on the site of ancient Byzantium, stands the Seraglio,

protected by walls about three miles in circumference. Within these walls dwell about 10,000 persons, and there are numerous palaces, courts, and gardens. Opposite the gateway of the Seraglio is the residence of the Grand Vizier; hence the Turkish Government is often called the Sublime Porte, in accordance with the oriental idea of justice being dispensed at the gate. Of all the buildings of Constantinople, the most interesting is the noble church of St. Sophia, built by the Emperor Justinian, and dedicated to the Eternal Wisdom. It is now used as a mosque. There are some other fine mosques, the most sacred being that of Eyub, in which the sultan is girt with the sword of Othman. An obelisk of the hippodrome, an aqueduct erected by the Emperor Valens, and a great cistern supported by hundreds of marble columns, are among the survivals of the old Roman world. The unequalled harbour of Constantinople, and its position between Europe and Asia, between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, makes it, even under the rule of the Turks, by far the most important commercial centre of the Balkan peninsula. Its trade is carried on chiefly by foreigners.

Another great city of Thrace or Roumelia is ADRIANOPLIS (pop. 100,000), built in a beautiful and fertile part of the valley of the Maritza, surrounded by hills. It was founded by the Emperor Hadrian, and was the capital of the Turks before they captured Constantinople. Among its fine buildings are the mosque of Selim II and the bazaar of Ali Pasha. Around Adrianople there are many gardens, and it is famous for its conserves and attar of roses. It is also a centre of trade for a wide district. On the shore of the Sea of Marmora are the trading towns RODOSTO and GALLIPOLI.

**14. Macedonia.**—The chief town in *Macedonia* is SALONICA (pop. 60,000), at the top of the gulf of the same name. It represents the ancient *Thessalonica*, where a church was formed by St. Paul. With hills in the background, it spreads out around the gulf in the form of a crescent, and has many palaces, mosques, and cypress groves; but, like Constantinople and most other eastern towns, it is less agreeable within than without. Next to the capital,

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it is the chief trading port in European Turkey. A railway connects Salonica with USKUB, a trading town on the Vardar, south-east of the Shar Dagh. MONASTIR or BITOLIA (pop. 45,000), on a tributary of the Vardar, collects much of the trade between Macedonia and Albania.

**15. Albania.**—The greater part of *Albania* is a wild, mountainous district, and it is inhabited chiefly by a war-like, semi-barbarous people. The Albanians are probably the descendants of the ancient Illyrians, who were driven southward by the Slavs ; and in the remoter districts they maintain their old tribal divisions. The majority of them are Mohammedans. The chief town in northern Albania is SCUTARI (pop. 30,000), a manufacturing and trading town on the shore of the lake of the same name. Behind it, on a pass of the Shar Dagh, is the fortified and prosperous town of PRISREND. Farther south, on the high Lake Ochrida, is the town of OCHRIDA, with valuable fisheries.

**16. Epirus.**—*Epirus* is even more wildly mountainous than Albania, and the ancient Greeks were so impressed by the savage grandeur of its scenery that they believed it to contain the entrance to the nether world. Its principal town is JANINA (pop. 20,000), on the shore of the Lake of Janina, which lies in a plateau, and is partly surrounded by mountains. The town has some reputation for its silk, morocco, and work in gold. Near it is the site of the ancient city of *Dodona*, which had a temple and oracle of Zeus.

**17. Islands.**—Of the islands connected with European Turkey the largest and most important is **Crete**, a long, narrow island to the south of Greece. It covers an area of 3320 square miles. A range of mountains traverses it from east to west, and culminates in **Mount Ida**, near the centre. The mountains descend gradually to the northern shore, but break off in steep precipices in some parts of the southern coast. Crete has a pleasant climate and many fertile valleys, and on the slopes of its hills grow abundantly olives, vines, and oranges. During the early part of the middle ages it formed a part of the Byzantine Empire. Then it passed to the Saracens, and afterwards to the Venetians, from whom it was taken by the Turks in 1669.

Under Turkish rule it has decayed, but even now it is famous for its olive oil, wine, cheese, and silk. The island has about 460,000 inhabitants, most of whom belong to the Orthodox Greek Church ; but there also some Mohammedans. The language of the people is modern Greek. On the north coast is CANDIA (pop. 12,000), the seat of the Turkish governor and of a Greek archbishop. On the north-west coast is CANEÀ, with an excellent harbour, which secures for it a good trade.

The only other island included by the Turks within their European dominions is Thasos, between the peninsulas of Chalcidice and Gallipoli. It has finely wooded hills, and produces much grain, wine, and oil. Near it are the islands of Samothrace, Imbros, and Lemnos. Lemnos is an island of contrasts, with bare, rocky peaks and beautiful, well-watered valleys, covered with olive-groves, fig-trees, and vines.

THE END



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